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ABSTRACT

This volume of a publication devoted to providing ideas and guidance for teachers of English as a second language includes articles on teaching communication and syntax and on using games, cloze procedure, and dialogs in the classroom. (MMN)

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TESL Reporter

Volume 8

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WHAT IS INDIVIDUALISM IN TESL?

by Larry Smith

Individualization is not new, but it is current. When I say that I am reminded of a quote from *The Four Quarters* by T.S. Eliot, ". . . And what there is to conquer . . . has already been discovered once or twice or several times . . . There is only the fight to recover what has been lost and found and lost again and again." Even though it is not new, individualization is a popular word in the vocabulary of many educators with a high degree of frequency. We have "found" it once again.

If we study the written philosophy of education in almost any country we find words like these, "Education from the earliest school years should be directed to the all--round development of the human personality and to the spiritual, moral, social, and economic progress of the community, as well as to the inculcation of deep respect for human rights and fundamental freedom." Individualization is said to facilitate this all-round development, but what is individualization?

Individualization means many things to many people. Practically any teacher, on some grounds, can claim to be individualizing instruction. If he has lowered the class enrollment from 60 to 30, he can work more individually with the students. If he calls his students by name instead of by number, no doubt that is more personal to each individual. If he uses programmed materials which allow students to work at their own pace, he can say that he is individualizing instruction. He may have conferences with individual students or he may instruct small groups in particular skills. He may allow small groups of students who

Larry Smith is a Research Associate at the East-West Center Culture Learning Institute. He has travelled extensively in the Far East and presently heads two programs: one for Inservice Teacher Trainers and one for Preservice Teacher Trainers.

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share some common interest to work together, and individual students may select their own materials from the available resources, and if so, he will proclaim to the world that he has an individualized class. Does he? I suppose that depends on one's definition of individualization.

I believe that individualization, more properly called personalized learning, is an approach which offers appropriate, not necessarily different, instruction for each student. The key word is "appropriate." It does not mean that the teacher teaches each student on a one to one ratio. It doesn't mean the student always works alone or even in small groups. There are times when people like to be members of a total community. There is something, I believe, quite real in "group spirit," which is more than a sum of the individual parts. "Appropriate" instruction would also allow the student to study when he wants to as well as how he wants to and with whom (or without whom as the case may be.)

Individualization is desirable because students differ. Each person is unique and learning activities should be based on this uniqueness. The following list provides some of the ways in which students differ which are relevant to learning:

Interest	**Motivation for learning**
Background	**Attention spans**
Language proficiency	**Perception**
Imagination	**Sensitivity**
Learning styles	**Curiosity**
Learning rates	**Anxiety**

I know of no one who says that all people are the same when talking about these things, and "appropriate" instruction is vague enough to please almost anyone as long as he can decide what is meant by "appropriate." Why then don't we see individualized instruction everywhere? In ESOL classes, I think one of the principle reasons is that the theoretical framework is not clearly understood or accepted.

THEORETICAL GUIDELINES FOR INDIVIDUALIZATION IN ESOL

1. There is no one way to learn language. Any way a person learns is valid. If a student wants to memorize dialogs, let him. If he feels that studying grammar rules helps, allow that.
2. There are no "correct" or "proper" sequence for learning the so-called "four language skills." It is not necessary to follow the listening, speaking, reading, writing order or any other sequence. Of course there is a sequence for each person which will depend on his goals and objectives.
3. There is no set of language skills necessary for all people. I doubt that most people need to learn English at all. Those that do can decide for themselves what skills they are interested in. Maybe only reading will be enough or only "Taxicab" spoken English.
4. Language skills can be learned at any age. If while in school a student studies only reading but discovers later he needs a speaking knowledge, he can at that time study to develop that. Learning can take place throughout life and the sooner we destroy the idea that one must be in school to learn, the more likely we are to promote genuine education.
5. Each learner is unique and much more than a reactor. He brings many things with him to the learning environment.
6. The amount of time spent for learning should not be a very important factor. Each student has a different rate of learning and even the same student will differ on different days. Usually learning is more important than the time it takes.
7. Class size is not a principle consideration. Since individualization is not one to one teaching, any "regular" class can be individualized.

How This Effects the Teacher

Under this approach the teacher takes on a new role. He is not the sole dispenser of knowledge who knows all. The student must have many sources of questions and answers. Individualization should not be equated as 1:1 instruction. The theory of individualization requires the teacher to

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THE ABC PRINCIPLE AND THE SECOND-LANGUAGE LEARNER

by Emilio G. Cortez

In a current edition of the *TESL REPORTER*, Dr. Kenneth Croft asserted that:

> *A unit of study based on dictionary usage at the beginning of a reading and/or composition course is well worth the time and effort.*[1]

In keeping with this position, various dictionary-related activities are here described. These activities are intended to afford the non-English speaker a familiarity and/or practice with the alphabetic principle.

To instill in the student a more focused awareness of the alphabetic principle, the teacher may select students' surnames and place them on the blackboard, first scrambled, and then in alphabetical order. Names from class lists or attendance sheets might also be used in the same fashion.

Another approach might be to pose the hypothetical case of a late registrant, "Now where shall we place Mr. A-Z on our class list?

Old telephone directories are excellent for class use. The students' curiosity might be stimulated by asking them to find the first name listed after "Alice Pack" in the telephone directory. Students' names might also be used. The same technique lends itself to dictionary entries as well, e.g., "Which word comes after *orange?*"

Locating local business addresses also offers possibilities, e.g., "Where is Rayfield's pharmacy?"

The telephone directory not only utilizes the alphabetic principle, but it contains some very practical information concerning stores, services, and various places of interest to our students. In a sense, the business section of the telephone directory reflects some aspects of our culture.

For those students who enjoy game-like activities, a dictionary race might ensue.

Dr. Emilio Cortez has taught in the Philadelphia school system for the past six years. He received his doctorate at Temple University and has previously published in *English Teaching Forum* and *English Language Teaching.*

The teacher calls out a word and the first student to find it raises his hand. The student then announces to the class the page on which he found the word. A different word is called out, and so on.

An added dimension to an English vocabulary review might be to have the students place these previously-taught words into alphabetical order. English words posing pronunciation difficulties for the non-English speaker may be written on flash cards and placed along the chalkledge in random order. A student is then called upon to place these words into the proper alphabetical order within a certain time limit. By utilizing words posing pronunciation difficulties, a twofold teaching purpose can be realized: pronunciation and/or auditory discrimination practice, and practice in alphabetizing. This activity may also be played competitively--teams formed and points awarded for correct responses.

A "framing" technique might also be used: Two flash cards are held up by the teacher, e.g., *field, hill.* A student is chosen to call out a word which would fall alphabetically between the two exposed words. The difficulty of such a task varies depending upon

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[1] Kenneth Croft, "Dictionary Use in ESL Courses," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 7, No. 1 (Fall, 1973), p. 1.

ON THE NECESSITY FOR SPECIALIZED MATERIALS IN ESOL

by Ted Plaister

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages are forever searching for specially prepared materials to teach the different language skills; consequently their eyes light up whenever a brochure from their favorite publisher comes across their desks with ESL or EFL somewhere in the title. What will be suggested here is that there are plenty of language teaching materials readily available which are not specialized at all. In addition, this lack of so-called specialization does not detract from the usefulness of such materials. In support of this argument, a technique will be detailed here which uses readily available materials costing practically nothing, yet which involve the students in real communication situations requiring them to talk, listen, interpret data, take notes, and summarize.

One such type of non-specialized material consists of charts and graphs of the kind which can easily be found in such publications as TIME, NEWSWEEK, U.S. NEWS & WORLD REPORT or in sales reports, newspaper articles, etc. These charts and graphs are collected and mounted on suitably-sized cardboard and the resulting cards numbered. The more varied the types selected the better, e.g., bar graphs, line graphs, pie-diagrams, those using objects as symbols (i.e., bushels of wheat, automobiles) which show relative amounts of specified products, etc. (Note that charts and graphs of this type can be kept current as new ones appear regularly.) A sufficient number of these charts and graphs should be collected to ensure that each student has a different one to work from, or that a large enough sample has been presented in class to assure adequate coverage of the major types.

Once a collection of suitable charts and graphs has been assembled, classroom work begins. The cards are passed out to the students. The teacher then explains that individuals will be called on randomly and questioned about the kinds of information their chart or graph communicates graphically. Having done this, the teacher calls upon a particular student and the questioning begins. (For his use, the teacher has a photocopy of each chart.)

Basically this use of charts and graphs is an exchange--a dialog--between teacher and student concerning a particular chart or graph. Obviously this involves questioning and answering, but it also includes note-taking as mentioned earlier. While one student is answering the teacher's questions about his chart or graph, the others in the class are listening and taking notes on the basis of the information contained in the exchange. What does this activity accomplish? First of all, it requires that the student who is doing the talking speak so others can understand him. If a class consists of a Thai, two Iranians, one Indonesian, two Koreans, one Samoan, and eight Cantonese (a not uncommon situation in some schools), the students will speak English with their own unique accents which constitute a potential--more often, real--barrier to understanding. The language communication in the classroom is English and so the situation of trying to understand another non-native speaker of English is very similar to that which the student will face in his other classrooms. In this connection, many universities employ non-native speakers of English as lecturers who must lecture in English. I am convinced that if one has to communicate his message to others where an understanding is crucial, e.g., where others have to take notes and get the content down accurately for later study, he generally will take pains to make himself understood. This is especially true in the

classroom situation which has just been described. It may not be true of some person of considerable status whose attitude is: strain and understand, I am worth listening to! Further, in the classroom, peer pressure is at work and it has been my experience that in environments such as have been outlined here, students will strive to do something about their pronunciation. Indeed, motivation to pronounce with reasonable accuracy may actually be higher than it is in regular pronunciation class.

In any event, students and teacher alike should be encouraged to apply modest pressure on the students to use a "communicative pronunciation" by such remarks as "I'm sorry, I don't understand," "Would you mind repeating that?" and similar indicators of lack of understanding.

Second, some students are soft-spoken because of personality factors or their insecurity when it comes to speaking English. Being placed in a situation where they have to speak loudly enough to be heard in a classroom by their peers provides definite motivation to speak up.

Dr. Ted Plaister, director of the English Language Institute at the University of Hawaii, has taught ESL for twenty years, including classes in Thailand, Japan, Micronesia, and American Samoa. For the past three years he has also been affiliated with the East-West Center as Teacher Trainer in the ESOL Administrator's program.

Third, this method of generating an exchange between student and teacher which is being recorded by the other members of the class also serves as a check on how well the students are handling the skill of note-taking. It is a simple matter for the teacher to collect the students' notes, look them over, and evaluate them in terms of the information supplied by the exchange.

Should the teacher wish to structure the note-taking (and this would be particularly advantageous for students at lower levels of English proficiency), he can order the presentation of his questions while providing the students with a form to fill out as the information is elicited. This might include such items as: title of the graph, type of graph, what the graph is measuring and so forth. Then as the students gained more proficiency, the structured helps would be gradually withdrawn until each student was taking his notes completely from the different teacher-student exchanges. A further refinement would be to tape record the exchange between student and teacher for later listening in a tutorial setting.

The teacher can easily check on-going comprehension as the dialog (which is real dialog, rather than contrived materials to be memorized at home) progresses by calling upon individual students to summarize what has been said thus far and this involves another useful skill. Such a procedure leads quite naturally to a complete summary at the end of the dialog, either by the student concerning his particular chart or graph, or by some other student from his notes. Finally, the students might write up a short summary of the data the graph presents (after all, a chart or graph is a means of representing data graphically rather than by means of print) to be handed in and checked by the teacher.

For this type of teaching to be maximally effective, the pace must be brisk but not so fast as to overwhelm, discourage or frustrate the student; but a student should feel some pressure because pressure is just exactly what he will often feel in the university (or other) classroom situation. Therefore, the questioning covering the chart or graph and what it has to communicate should move at a steady clip. Certain stock questions can be written out by the teacher ahead of time (and this would be especially necessary if one were using some kind of structured approach with beginning students). But probably the most useful and real questions will come as the dialog develops naturally between teacher and student.

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CONVERSATIONS AND DIALOGUES

by Jack Wigfield

Many ESL textbooks include dialogues which seem to fall roughly into four classes:

A. Non-classroom situations:
1: Is this the supermarket?
2: Yes, it is.
1: Where's the meat section?
2: Over there.

B. Role playing:
1: Can I help you?
2: Yes. Are you a doctor?
1: No. I'm a nurse.
2: I'd like to see a doctor.
1: Do you have an appointment?
etc.

C. Falsified classroom situations:
(On a sunny day)
1: How's the weather?
2: It's raining.

D. Register violation:
1: Are you going to take the freeway?
2: Yes.
1: Do be careful.

(Person 1 should be specified as female since the "do" command form is seldom used in male speech.)

These dialogues all violate the increasing belief by some language teachers that people can learn a second language in a classroom much the same natural way that they do outside the classroom in communities throughout the world where adult bilingualism is a common phenomenon. Some language teachers now feel that language input in the form of a stream of speech directed at an adult in an actual situation with occasional cognitive help as to what linguistic system this language uses in that situation makes the development of a second language possible, less of an ordeal, and can help bridge the gap between communicative competence and knowledge of the code, two factors which in Upshur's words ". . . .do not go hand in hand." (Upshur, 1974)

Dialogues, with all their faults, seem to be the most fruitful type of language learning exposure for adult early beginners. But these drill dialogues must lead to something usable in the classroom or they defeat their purpose and are comparable to pattern practice drills. This article proposes a pre-drill dialogue called a "conversation" as a means to move closer to a natural situation and to go beyond the dialogue into real communication.

Jack Wigfield, former director of the Language Archives Project of the Language Study Center of Philippine Normal College, has an MA in linguistics from the University of Michigan and is a doctoral candidate at Stanford University. He has taught in Thailand, Vietnam, and the Philippines. He is presently teaching at Alemany Adult School in San Francisco, California.

Conversations precede drill dialogues. They grow out of drill dialogues. As time goes on, they become more complicated and more varied. For example:

First Week:	
Drill Dialogue:	1: Hello. How are you?
	2: Fine. How are you?
	1: Fine.
Second Week:	
Conversation:	1: Hello. How are you?
	2: Fine. How are you?
	1: Fine.
Drill Dialogue:	2: What's that?
	1: It's a pen.

Third Week:

Conversation:
1: Hi. How are you?
2: Fine. How are you?
1: So-so. What's that?
2: Where?
1: There.
(Points to a map)
2: I don't know.
1: It's a map.
2: Oh.

Drill Dialogue:
1: Say. .How's the weather?
2: It's rainy. (Actually it's sunny.)

Fourth Week:

Conversation:
1: Hi. How's the weather?
2: Sunny. (actually sunny)
1: What's new?
2: Nothing special.
1: Where are you going?
2: Now?
1: No. After class.
2: I don't know.

Drill Dialogue
1: Say. . .How did you come to school today?
2: I came by bus. (actually) he walked.)

Conversations are marked by certain features such as "say", "hey", "you know" which commonly divide initial small talk from major topics or abrupt changes in topic.

1: Hi.
2: Hi.
1: How's the weather?
2: Cloudy.
1: Say. . .Who's that?
etc.

Conversations are marked by deletions:

1: Hi.
2: Hi.
1: My name is Joe. What's yours.
2: Luzviminda. (*My name is Luzviminda.)
1: Say. . .Who's that?
etc.

Conversations are marked by veracity:

(Drill Dialogue on a rainy day.)
1: How's the weather?
2: It's sunny.
(Same day)
1: Hi.
2: Hi. How's the weather?
1: (Turning to look out the window.) It's raining.
2: Say. . .Who's that?
etc.

Conversations are marked by a disallowance of role playing:

1: Hello.
2: Hi.
1: *This is Safeway. Can I help you?*
The conversation short circuits at this point.

Conversations are marked by interaction signals that indicate degrees of interest and understanding.

1: It's sunny today.
2: Uhuh.
1: I came by bus today.
2: Oh.
1: Say. . .Who's that?
etc.

Conversations are marked by signals like "nevermind" that allow a graceful acceptable termination of a difficult situation:

1: It's sunny today.
2: What?
1: Sunny. It's sunny.
2: I don't understand.
1: No clouds. Sun. Sunny. See?
2: Spell it.
1: Nevermind.
2: Say. . .Who's that?
etc.

Conversations are marked by various register constraints:

1: Hi.
2: Hi.
1: What's the weather forecast?
2: For tomorrow?
1: Yeah.
2: Partly cloudy. (Radio/meteorology "field")
1: How is it now?
2: A little cloudy. (Everyday speech)
1: Say. . .Who's that?
etc.

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BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY–HAWAII CAMPUS BATESL REQUIREMENTS

by Jay Fox

Beginning Fall 1974 the Division of Communication and Language Arts of Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus is offering a revised Bachelor of Arts program in Teaching English as a Second Language. The new TESL major is designed to prepare students better in the practical aspects of second language teaching by requiring less theoretical linguistics and by requiring a supervised teaching experience in the University's English Language Institute program.

Students in the TESL program receive instruction in both language and literature courses so they will be more versatile in teaching in language parts program below the university level. Each student is also required to study four semesters of a language. International students may use English as their foreign language by completing the University's general education program in reading writing, and speaking.

A brief description of the cirriculuum is included here to give other schools an idea of one way an undergraduate TESL program could be organized.

English 210 Introduction to Linguistics (3)

What language is. A general introduction to the nature of languages, examining essential components and showing how these work in various languages. This course is a prerequisite for English 320, 410, 466.

English 310 English Grammar (3)

How language works. Examination of syntactic structure of language. Exercises in syntactic description and analysis.

English 320 Language Acquisition (3)

How language is acquired. Course examines the basic assumptions underlying second language teaching with concentration on psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

English 410 TESL Materials (3)

What language materials to use. An examination of available materials in the TESL field and a consideration of their applicability to current methodologies. Includes adaptation of existing texts and construction of materials for specific, situational instruction.

English 466 TESL Methods (3)

How to teach a second language. A practical course in professional preparation for developing teaching skills in listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

MCS 250 Intercultural Communication (3)

Study of communication difficulties resulting from cross cultural and intercultural situations.

LITERATURE CORE

English 340 Language in Literature (3)
English 345 Ethnic Lieterature (3)
English 351 Shakespeare and His Age (3)
English 356 American Literature (3)
English 357 Twentieth Century Literature (3)

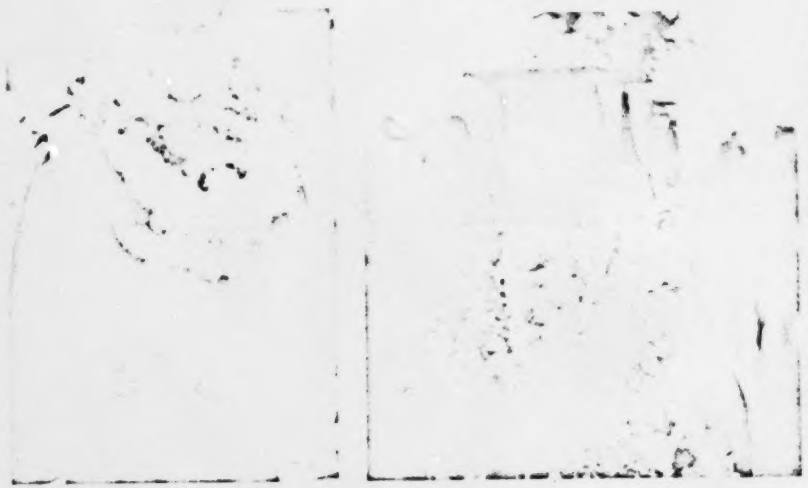
1974 BATESL GRADUATES

Vuki Tangitau
Principal of Liahona High School, Tonga

Rosita Ah Ching (picture unavailable) is now teaching in Western Samoa.

Upper Right: Kelly Harris
Lower Right: Leialoha Finai

Matilda Wesley Moe



Dorothy Sualfilo

LEARNING WITH GAMES

by Rosita Ah Ching

One of the great problems faced by the modern day TESL teacher is how to keep students activily involved and interested in learning another language without impeding the progress of the brighter students or drowning the slower students in a mass of words which they don't understand. A teacher may gear the lesson at a speed for the top half of the class and force the students who are having a harder time to struggle along at a rate too fast for them or teach at a speed comfortable for the class mean and let the faster students suffer through the drills which are no longer a challenge to them.

Rosita Ah Ching, a BATESL graduate of the Church College of Hawaii, is currently teaching at the Church College in Pesega, Western Samoa.

This question is not a new one but has been relevant to teachers throughout history It reaches even greater significance to the TESL teacher, however, since he or she is faced with the task of teaching students to speak and think in a foreign language.

One method of successfully meeting the challenge is to use various language games dispersed between class drills and lectures to keep the students interested in their studies as well as achieving on their own level. Language games provide several different advantages over regular classroom activities. As Julia Doleson points out in her essay from *Readings on English as a Second Language* (p. 361), language games (1) provide an intellectual challenge (2) require no time consuming correction of written reponses but provides immediate feedback on any mistake the student may make and (3) are fun and relaxing as well as competitive. Probably the greatest advantage of playing games is that the class can be broken up into smaller groups of students and each group given games which meet its intellectual needs and keep students challenged on their various level.

At this time, a second question should arise -- "Are games successful in practice as well as in theory?" To answer this question, it is necessary to go directly to the classroom and examine two separate teaching situations.

Thelma Lonemori, a graduate from the Church College of Hawaii has found language pronunciation games to be very successful in her teaching situation at Hilo High School on the big island. A great majority of her students are from Filipino extraction and have a difficult time pronouncing labiodental fricatives such as [f] and [v].

"I tried different drills with my students to try to get the right pronunciation of [f] and [v] but as my students left the classroom and began talking to each other, they fell back into their old incorrect speech habits. Finally in frustration, I began looking into language pronunciation games. One game in particular was very successful. I divided the class into boys against girls and kept score. The losers had to take home a short exercise as homework while the winning team had none. I would direct a question containing difficult words which a student would have to ask.

Example:

Emily: Not me Miss Lonemori, Joseph did you take her favorite violin?

Joseph: Not me, Phyllis, did you take her favorite violin?

I would keep the pace very fast so that the students were rapidly questioning one another. As the sentence got old I would rotate it with others. The students enjoyed

the game and I believe their pronunciation was successfully improved."

Another teaching situation where games were found to be successful was in my own class for the Samoans of Laie who wanted to improve their English. After several class periods of drilling and lecturing on prepositions, I noticed that my students weren't understanding the correct usage of several prepositions. In the Samoan language, the word "ile" as in "kaele ile sami" is used for both "in" and "to." Since the one word is used for both English words, my students were confused as to when to use which preposition. I began using Alice Pack's preposition exercises stressing the problem prepositions. These have a handout with a blank space where prepositions should go. One student has the sheet with the missing words while the other holds the answer key; students drill each other. I kept score over how many words each student missed so the exercise became a competitive game which was both entertaining as well as informative.

The two teaching situations cite how language games have been found to be effective in practice as well as in theory. In the introduction to *Language Games and Songs for Core English*, the author states: "Language games and songs have an important part in any elementary ESL program. Both provide an opportunity for the controlled repetition which must precede fluency; and they offer to the young child especially, a natural incentive to master a skill by practicing it at play." Language games are indeed a successful tool in accomplishing the difficult task of teaching students to speak and think in a foreign language."

CONVERSATIONS

(continued from page 7)

Conversations are marked by forms developed outside class:

1: How's everything, man?
2: What?
1: Nevermind. Say. . .Who's that?
etc.

Conversations are marked by acceptable evasions:

1: Hi.
2: Hi.
1: What's new?
2: Nothing special.
1: Say. . .Who's that?
etc.

Conversations are marked by correct persuppositions or presuppositions which can be questioned:

(Drill Dialogue)
1: Machu Pichu is beautiful
2: When did you go there?
1: Last year.
2: Did you like Peru?
1: Sure.

(Occurring in a conversation)
1: Hi.
2: Hi.
1: You know, Machu Pichu is beautiful.
2: Who's she?
1: No. It's a place.
2: Where?
1: Peru.
2: Are you from Peru?
1: Yeah.
2: Tell me about Michi Pichu.
1: Machu Pichu. Sorry, my English isn't good enough. Say. . .who's that?
etc.

As time goes on, the conversations take on a more important role, and the early adult beginner begins to see the drill dialogue in its true perspective: a device to keep him exposed to the language, to keep the teacher from misinforming and boring him with a lot of technical grammatical explanations, and to give him a model of pronunciation and reaction.

Upshur, John. unpublished paper given at TESOL Convention, Denver, 1974.

I am grateful to Ruth Cathcart, Kathleen Grinsell, Judy Olson, and Ted Plaister for reading and commenting on an early draft of this paper.

INDIVIDUALIZATION

(continued from page 2)

take a new role, but not a less important role. *The teacher,* and each one also is unique, *remains the most important factor* in the classroom. The best materials can be made ineffectual by the teacher and the worst materials can be brought to life. To choose, adapt, and create materials for the class is one of the functions of the teacher in an individualized classroom. Another is to encourage the students with inspiration and guidance. Being an example of scholarship may be the most important thing. Of course he helps each student as needed and is a coordinator or facilitator of activities.

How This Effects the Student

The goal is to have him be the planner, director, and assessor of his education. This is the goal we hope he has reached at the end of formal schooling. He can't do it at the beginning of kindergarden and may not ever reach it. We shouldn't expect too much too soon, yet we should allow the student to "try his wings." The teacher helps him to be successful in his planning and works with him in evaluating his work.

Students should be encouraged to tutor one another. Of course this is not new. Students have always learned from each other and if we can use that force in our ESOL classroom, we will probably be more successful. To get the most from peer tutoring, students should be heterogeneous in terms of ability, age and sex.

Students should not be constantly placed in competition with one another; however, competition should not be avoided when it seems natural.

How This Effects the Classroom

An individualized classroom looks different. The desks are not usually in neat rows and the students almost never are involved in the same activity. Some may be reading while others are writing or listening to tapes. This approach demands that there be an ever increasing bank of materials designed to facilitate individualized programs for all levels of ability in each language skill.

The classroom is not quiet because there is a great deal of activity in it. It is educational noise however, not the sounds of chaos. It is difficult to describe the difference but any teacher recognizes the distinction immediately.

Now, let's go back to the teacher who claims to be individualizing instruction because he has lowered the class size, calls his students by name, uses programmed material, instructs small groups in particular skills, has individual conferences, and allows students to select their own material from the available resources. The question is not so much, "Is this program individualized?" as it is, "To what *degree* is this program individualized?"

If the teacher is doing all of the above, his class is more individualized than if he is doing only two or three.

In deciding the degree to which any program or class is individualized some of the questions we must ask are:

1. Is this program elective or required?
2. Is the goal decided by the student or the teacher?
3. Does the student, with the teacher's help plan his own program by choosing from the available materials the books, tapes, films, etc., he wants to use to meet his goal, or is he told to study book X, pages 1-2?
4. Is the method and pace of study determined by the student or teacher/administrator?
5. Is evaluation done by the student in conference with the teacher or is it decided by class rank or some examination?

No longer should we let go unchallenged a statement by a teacher that he has an individualized class. We should seek to know the degree to which individualization has been made possible.

There is no approach which makes students more individualistic. There is an approach however which does increase the opportunity for each of them to express and develop his unique characteristics. Good teachers have been working toward this for centuries. I hope we will continue to develop such an approach--call it individualization or any other term which is currently popular.

PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN ESL

Starting with this issue, the TESL Reporter will list openings for ESL and EFL teachers as they are recieved by the editor.

For information, applications, etc., please write direct to the listed names, schools, or districts, the TESL Reporter will not accept or forward information or applications from prospective employees or employers.

Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages in Tokyo, Japan, is recruiting English Instructors for the academic year April 1975-March 1976.

Information may be obtained from K. Yamamoto (Personnel Department), Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages, 2-13-13, Uchikanda, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo Japan.

Foreign Language Service Co., Ltd., in Osaka, Japan, is recruiting instructors to teach English conversation to Japanese businessmen at their companies on a one or more year contract basis.

Information may be obtained from Teruo Yamauchi, Foreign Language Service Co., Ltd., Matsumoto Building, Room 601, 10, 3-Chome, Minamikyuhoji-Machi, Higashi-Ku, Osaka, Japan.

BOOK REVIEW

Eugene J. Hall. Grammar For Use, Books 1 & 2 Price: $4.95 each Paperback
Published by The Institute of Modern Languages

An excellent book for advanced ESL students or teachers who want grammatical rules for English usage. Although these books use traditional grammar terminology, the rules and exercises reflect descriptive usage rather than being traditionally prescriptive.

There are six major divisions with 39 separate sections covering the problem areas of dialectical and non-native English speakers. Each section contains textual material followed by questions for comprehension and discussion. These are followed by questions for comprehension and discussion. Exercises in the form of connected discourse follow. Halles' foreword explains the rationale of the exercises:

1. Questions and grammatical points, for the purpose of making the student more conscious of the forms and meanings of the various structures.
2. Manipulations of the sentences for the purpose of making the students more at ease in their use of the forms of the patterns.
3. Exercises principally in combining and otherwise "improving" sentences, for the purpose of making the students more conscious of stylistic devices in English and giving them a basis on which to improve their own skills in communication.

These books could be used for individual study. The exercises would then alert the teacher to problems students might have in understanding the material.

Alice C Pack

WINTER 1975 TESL REPORTER

will include an article by Dr. Albert H. Marckwardt on "The Foreign Language–Second Language Distinction," "Drilling English Auxiliary Verbs in ESL classes" by Donald M. Decker, and "Morphological and Syntactic Complementation of Two Modals and Three Auxiliaries" by Dr. Yao Shen.

TRANSLATIONS

The UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1971 reports that English is by far the most frequently translated language. A survey of the publishing industry in 67 countries revealed that during 1969 14,344 books were translated from English into another language. French was the second most frequently translated language with 5,147 titles represented. Next were German, 4,017 titles, and Russian, 3,811 titles.

The ABC Principle and the Second–Language Learner

(continued from page 3)

the two words "framing" a suitable response.

Various words can be written on the blackboard in scrambled order, each word with a corresponding number. Within a specified time limit, a student or students must write down the proper alphabetical order of the words, but using only the corresponding numbers for each word. For example, *sunset* might be number four, whereas *sunshine* might be number one. Regarding these two words, the correct alphabetical order would be: four, one. The use of numbers in this activity helps to maintain a brisk pace since entire words need not be written.

KROHN LECTURES at BYU-HC

Professor Robert Krohn, author of *English Sentence Structure* and articles on linguistics and ESL methodology, visited Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus recently as a guest of the basic linguistic class.

In a lecture on "English Vowels," Dr. Krohn discussed how English vowels change in related words and how the teaching of English spelling might be facilitated by showing ELI students the spelling of related words.

Over 80 students attended the lecture.

TESL REPORTER

A quarterly publication of the English Language Institute and the BATESL program of the Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus.

Editor.....Alice C. Pack
Staff.....Tamra Murdoch
Api Hemi
Michael Foley
William Gallagher

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

SPECIALIZED MATERIALS IN ESOL

(continued from page 5)

After using charts and graphs with a group of students what exactly has been accomplished? The students should have become thoroughly familiar with a wide variety of charts and graphs and learned to read and interpret them (for interpreting and drawing inferences from the charts would definitely want to come within the matrix of questioning) this skill cannot help but be useful to them in their work. Second, students have been given intensive practice in answering questions which are real rather than contrived; questions which are closely related to the kinds of questions which conceivably will be asked of them in some of their classes. Third, students have been taking notes and responding to "quizzes" on their notes. In addition, both oral and written summarizations have been made and this is desirable preparation for summarizing data in other classes for other purposes

One further technique is to show an enlarged version of the chart or graph--either drawn for the purpose, sketched on the chalkboard, or displayed by means of an overhead projector--to the class after the procedures suggested have been completed. The teacher then "lectures" from the chart, thus simulating an actual lecture situation. Such a lecture might be looked upon as a sort of summary of summaries. By this time the content should be thoroughly familiar to the class and this particular procedure could well impart a feeling of real accomplishment to the class as they listened and (hopefully!) understood with relative ease. Quite naturally a great number of the sentences used by the teacher will be unique and this affords the students practice in listening to what might be called uncontrived English. To carry this procedure one additional step, the teacher could, having lectured from the chart once, start all over again and give the "same" lecture again. Once more the students would be hearing a slightly different version of the same information. Then, if it could be scheduled and was practical, another teacher or any speaker of reasonably intelligible English could be brought in and the students given the opportunity to hear still another rendition. Repeated exposure to the same information cast in slightly different syntax affords the student practice in coping with paraphrased material and should be of assistance to them in listening to and comprehending other lectures. The teacher would have to exercise judgment on when to terminate activities for a particular chart or graph so as to avoid boredom.

In addition to practicing the skills we have already mentioned, the students are led to a study of vocabulary--something for which students instinctively feel a need. With this technique, all vocabulary, new or old, is presented in a meaningful context. What better way to learn a world like *trend*, for example, than by seeing it graphically illustrated on several charts or graphs and explicated by the teacher or one of the students? Over a period of time, the entire vocabulary associated with charts and graphs would be introduced in context and repeated exposures should suffice to effect learning. Much of the vocabulary used by the teacher in questioning will be spontaneous, a far better procedure than picking words out of the air for the "vocabulary lesson of the day."

Thus, we have shown how charts and graphs can be used by a language teacher to involve students in actual language learning activities which closely approximate those they will face in one segment of their life in an academic setting, or quite conceivably in other instances as well. The materials used are neither specially prepared nor adapted for students of ESOL. Instead, they are taken from ordinary sources. Charts and graphs are not the only examples of such language teaching aids which are available to the resourceful teacher. All aids of this kind have the advantage of being relevant and real, thus lending themselves to a greater degree of acceptability on the part of the student and teacher alike than many of the artificial and staged exercises often used.

Availability of Topics in CULTURE LEARNING

Volume 2 of *Topics in Culture Learning* is available at no charge from the Culture Learning Institute at the East-West Center. The volume contains 12 articles related to the Institute's four areas of research interest, "Cultures in Contact", "Languages in Culture", "Cultural Identity" and "Thought and Expression in Culture Learning". The articles also examine one or more of these four themes which transcend the four research areas: Learning one's own culture; learning about another culture; formal educational programs designed to teach one's own culture or about another culture; concepts and issues central to educational programs involving culture learning. Articles are aimed at the general reader rather than a specialist in any one discipline.

The twelve articles are:

The Pacific Cultural Centers Program
by Verner C. Bickley

Psychological Aspects of Cultural Pluralism: Unity and Identity Reconsidered
by John W. Berry

Beyond Cultural Identity: Reflections Upon Cultural and Multicultural Man
by Peter S. Adler

A Swedish Approach to International Communication
by D. Ray Heisey

Looking at Islanders: European Ways of Thinking About Polynesians in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries
by Gavin Daws

Understanding Human Interaction: The Study of Everyday Life and Ordinary Talk
by Karen Ann Watson

The American Way with Names
by H. Van Buren

Display Rules and Facial Affective Behavior: A Theoretical Discussion and Suggestions for Research
by Jerry D. Boucher

Seating as a Measure of Behavior: You Are Where You Sit
by Richard W. Brislin

Hologeistic Studies of Education: A Review
by Walter E. Precourt

The Training of Language Teachers: A Look at the Future
by Peter Strevens

Bilingual Education in the United States, The Pacific and Southeast Asia
by Mark Lester

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THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE — SECOND LANGUAGE DISTINCTION

by Albert H. Marckwardt

A language that is as widespread as English throughout the various continents of the globe fulfills many different roles in the countries in which it is used. Over a long period, the term "foreign language" was used quite indiscriminately to characterize the status of English in a situation where the bulk of the population were native speakers of some other language. It is significant, perhaps, that a national advisory group organized in the United States in 1961 chose to call itself the National Advisory Council on Teaching English as a Foreign Language, and for which the acronym NACTEFL came into use. Only a few years later, the professional organization of teachers of the subject, which finally came to fruition in New York City in 1966, decided to call itself TESOL, Teachers of English as a Second or Other Language. Since that time, the use of the word *second* has gradually overtaken the use of *foreign* to characterize the status of English as a non-native language. In many ways this is an unfortunate development since it tends to obscure an important difference which could be indicated by a discriminating use of the two terms, a distinction which has been maintained in British usage for some years.

Dr. Marckwardt, Professor Emeritus of English and Linguistics at Princeton University, is a Senior Fellow of the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii. He is the author of *American English, Linguistics and the Teacher of English*, and numerous other publications.

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Let us begin by considering the status of English in a number of countries which, though now independent, were once colonies of one or another English-speaking nation. Examples come to mind readily enough: Ghana, Nigeria, the Philippines. In many of them English is still the language in which part or all of the business of government, especially the national government is carried on: parliamentary debates, the written statutes and government reports, the conduct of the courts.

It may be the language in which all or many of the commercial transactions are conducted. It may also figure significantly in such ceremonial functions as church services and public celebrations. It is usually wholly or in part the language of instruction in the schools, in addition to being one of the subjects of study. And in this connection, emphasis is placed equally upon the mastery of all four of the language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In fact, the aim of the educational system is often that of establishing a fairly widespread bilingualism. And finally, some of the literature produced in the country may be written in English.

When the use of English in a country fulfills the conditions which have just been outlined, we speak of it as a second language. Actually, the term is applicable in a dual sense. Chronologically considered, it is a second language since almost everyone will learn either a local language or the native national language first. Functionally considered, it is a second language in that it becomes an additional and essential communications resource.

One may contrast the foregoing situation with countries and educational systems where English may be said to occupy the position of a foreign language, not unlike the status of French in all but a very few parts of the United States. In general we look upon the acquisition of a fair working knowledge of French as a desirable or laudable cultural achievement. Or even more fundamental, we may consider the knowledge of French or some other foreign language to be a valuable and an essential component of a liberal education--something that liberates the individual from the confines of a single language, from a single structuring of experience. On the other hand, a knowledge of French is by no means necessary for anyone to function politically, commercially, or professionally in this country.

Although French has been cited here for purposes of illustration, there is nothing that points inevitably to a particular language to be studied. From the point of view of the purposes which have been mentioned, it could as well be German, Spanish, Italian, or Russian. It is the language-learning experience and achievement rather than the specific language that is important. The foreign language is rarely, if ever, the language of instruction in the schools. In general, what has been said of French in the United States applies equally to English in Japan, in the Latin American countries and in most of Europe. It is a foreign and not a second language.

In circumstances such as these, it is evident that general bilingualism is not a contemplated goal, valuable as it may be in individual cases. The native language is expected to remain dominant. Reading is probably the skill that will be used most extensively under these circumstances, except for those who engage in foreign travel. Except for this latter point, the classical languages could fulfill the educational function that has been specified just about as well as the modern foreign languages, and in fact they did just that over a long period in the past.

At one time all of the study of English throughout the non-English speaking world was conceived as falling into one or the other of the foregoing categories, ESL or EFL. Just recently an additional concept has been recognized as well, that of a library language or language of study. There are countries, for example, where English is not at all an official language, nor is it the language of instruction in the primary and

secondary schools. Yet it plays a larger role than merely that of a foreign language. It serves the purpose of a "window to the world," to employ a phrase used by Nehru.

In countries such as Thailand, for example, the Thai language serves quite satisfactorily for affairs which are of purely local or national concern. Yet the moment the interests of the intellectual and scientific community are extended into the international sphere, one of the languages of wider communication must serve as the vehicle. To put the situation into concrete terms, not long after the appearance of a new book written in English and dealing with microbiology, geophysics, or survey research techniques, it is likely to be translated into Japanese. The possibility of its being translated into Thai is very remote. For one thing, the market is not sufficient to justify the cost, and for another, the Thai are not yet certain that their vocabulary can be successfully adapted to many of the current scientific disciplines. In short, such groups of students and scholars need to be able to read technical English.

But that is not the whole story. If it were, the term *library language* would be descriptively adequate. We must realize, however, that in order to keep up with this expansion of knowledge, some students and indeed some of the professionals will have to study abroad. Foreign scholars knowledgeable in these fields will undoubtedly be brought into the country. Unquestionably, they will have to lecture in English. This adds to the reading skills already specified, that of aural comprehension. Students in seminars or study groups will have to respond to their instructor in his own language, which demands a speaking knowledge. They may be asked to prepare papers and reports, and if any publishable scholarship comes out of the venture, it will have to be written in English.

This poses the necessity for a command of all four of the language skills. The demand for this kind of competence is not as extensive as it would be in a country where English is a second language in that a smaller portion of the population is affected and the range of subject matter is considerably restricted. Nevertheless, within these limits, a high degree of competence is required, and certainly far more than just a reading knowledge. For this reason the term *language of study* seems to characterize the situation much more precisely than *library language*.

Like most schemes of classification, this one is open to the charge of oversimplification. Not everything is as neatly cut and dried as it has been presented here. In certain instances, India for example, English has the status of a third rather than a second language. And although India, like the Philippines, is firmly committed to bilingualism, unlike the Philippines, English is not necessarily contemplated as one of the two languages of the duo. In Japan, English has not only the status of a foreign language, but virtually that of a mandatory foreign language rather than one of a number of freely available possibilities. In short, although these three categories are useful to a degree, we must remember that every country presents a set of circumstances peculiar to itself, which in turn affects not only the place of English in the educational system but the motivation, the goals, and the methods of teaching the language as well.

TESL REPORTER

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INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

by L.S. Harms

Intercultural communication has, in recent years, become a matter of worldwide concern. This article attempts to examine the pathway from language learning to intercultural communication, sketch a communication model, provide a working definition, outline some unexpected benefits, and establish a long-range goal for human communication.

Language Learning

When a student starts out to learn a second language, he starts a journey down a long path that can, if all goes well, lead to a world network for the intercultural interchange of ideas. To be sure, the beginning student often undertakes to learn a second language to complete a school requirement and laments the hours he must spend in class, lab and homework.

L. S. Harms, Ph.D, Professor of Communication at the University of Hawaii and author of numerous books and publications, is chairman of PEACEAT.

Dr. Harms, international lecturer and consultant is also organizer and chairman of the SCA Communication Rights Commission.

Curiously, even though that student may complete a course of second language study with distinction, he often makes little or no use of his newly developed skill. His investment does not pay off.

Language learning has, to a considerable extent, been domesticated. Second languages can be learned in classrooms and laboratories. Intercultural communication, however, occurs for the most part in airports, on the streets and in the shops of world cities, in outdoor cafes, and a thousand and one other places where persons from different cultural backgrounds communicate to achieve a mutual purpose. Intercultural communication extends far beyond the classroom.

As I see it, intercultural communication, is beset with surprises of many kinds. Its outcomes are difficult to predict. And it seems destined to remain an uncertain but important adventure. For instance, intercultural communication usually requires that rules be discovered or invented while two persons are acutally engaged in communication. Risk and uncertainty are key concepts.

Basic Model

Intercultural communication then, is characterized by greater variety and diversity and uncertainty than most intracultural communication. For that reason, it is important to be quite explicit about some of the assumptions that underlie intercultural communication.

Figure 1 shows a basic communication model (1,2,7,8). That model indicates that in the simplest case of intercultural communication there are two communicators, one a first language speaker (Communicator A) and the other a second language speaker (Communicator B). Intercultural communication is of necessity a two-way process. Notice that the language-related terms of speaker-listener or source-receiver are deliberately not used; these terms are appropriate only for a one-way model of communication. Quite importantly, there is also an external observer (Observer 0). The observer can be an instructor or a student; that viewpoint is

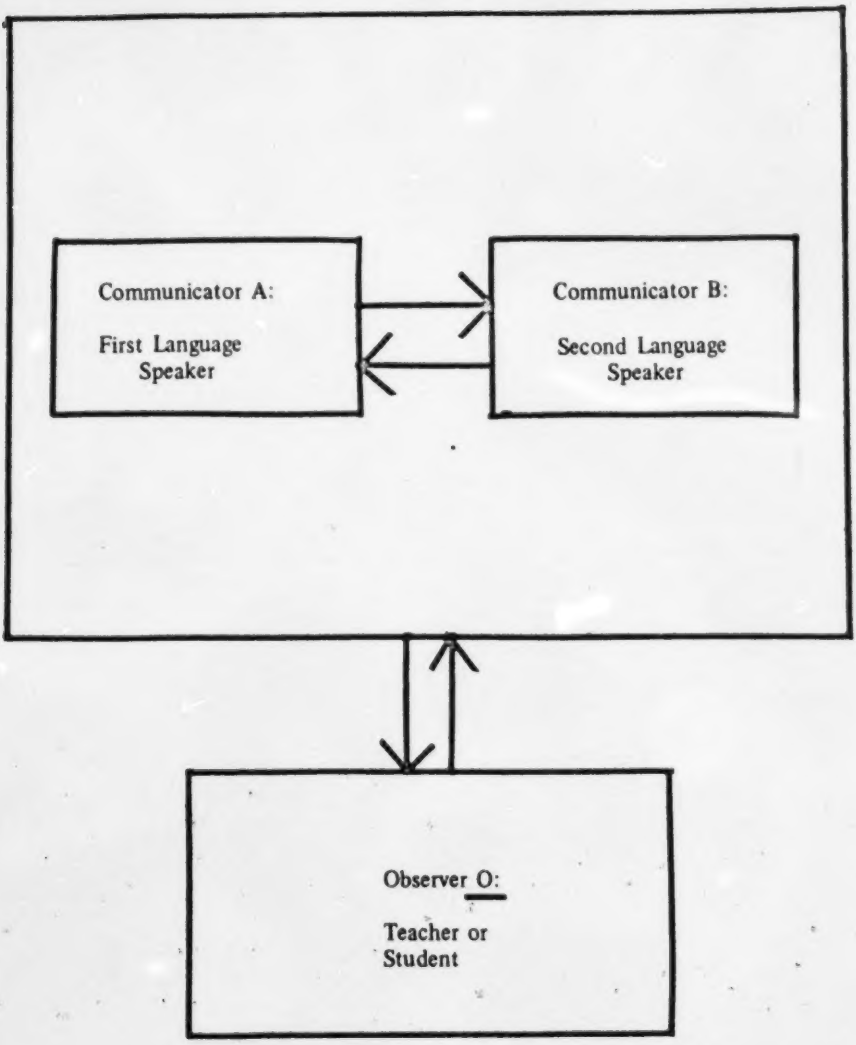

Figure I: Dyadic Model for Intercultural Communication

necessary to observe the details of intercultural interaction between Communicator A and Communicator B. From that viewpoint, for instance, the question immediately arises: What can and should A do to help B? Additional pedagogical uses of the observer role are discussed in detail elsewhere (I:137) *(continued)*

Definition

The proposed definition of intercultural communication follows from the model shown in Figure 1. Thus, intercultural communication occurs when any two (or small group of) communicators of dissimilar language and cultural backgrounds communicate with each other to achieve some mutual purpose. It can be observed, for instance, in a telephone call, in face-to-face dialog, or in a committee meeting. Note that definitions that employ terms such as source and receiver usually suggest that the source manipulates the receiver in some way---which leads on to cultural imperialism. The proposed definition, on the other hand, leads to mutual influence, interchange, and reciprocal interaction.

Benefits

Until recently, the focus in intercultural communication was on errors, mistakes, barriers, breakdowns and a long list of other negatives. As we began to apply a system or cybernetic model to intercultural communication, two advantages of enormous importance became apparent. The names for these two advantages are synergy and serendipity.

Synergy results in a system when the achievement of that system exceeds what can be predicted from the performance of the individual parts. Thus, in a communication system with two culturally dissimilar communicators, one often finds that they are able to solve problems, reach insights, generate ideas, and arrive at decisions that remain unthought of within the framework of a single culture. Intercultural communication then, can, when the conditions are right, greatly enhance human capacities to cope with a wide range of questions.

Serendipity results from what we usually call errors, mistakes, deviations and the like. While synergy can be expected from a rather serious application of human communication skills, serendipity requires a light-hearted, child-like curiosity about the shape of new and unexpected things. More generally, serendipity is the art and science of looking for one thing and finding something else which is different and better. Intercultural communication provides both a place to look and a way of looking that exceeds at times the individual human imagination.

Taken together, *synergy* and *serendipity*---or if you like, *synser*---provide an important perspective on intercultural communication. That perspective arises from the system model in Figure 1, and the proposed definition. Obviously, language learning undertaken with a goal of synser intercultural communication takes on a very different academic cloak.

Right to Communicate

There are nearly four billion persons in the world and many, perhaps most, of them are constrained to communicate within the narrow framework of a single dialect. We have long held that human growth and development were closely linked to communication and language skills. Until now, the problem has been difficult even to think about because it is so large (3).

Recently there has come out of multicultural dialog---with a bit of synergy and serendipity to be sure---a new and simple concept: **Everyone has the Right** to Communicate. That concept requires that we examine closely human communication *needs*, deal with the fact that we can now *invent* any communication *technology* required to serve human communication needs, and shape the communication *policy* necessary to ensure that technology serves those needs (4,5). These are new conditions in the world. Both professionals and students of language and intercultural communication have a special contribution to make for they have the skills and outlook to advance this Right.

As a long-range goal, then, let us declare that everyone shall come to have the Right to Communicate.

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(continued on Page 18)

TESL IN HAWAII'S PUBLIC SCHOOLS

by William H. Cunningham

Articles in the *TESL Reporter* usually offer some answers. This article provides no answers, only questions. But maybe we need a good question now and then.

For some time TESL teachers in Hawaii's public schools have had to contend with some controversy over our goals. Is our primary objective (1) to teach standard English to immigrant students, or is it (2) to assist them in reaching a functional level of communication and inter-action with their peers? In short, do we see TESL more in terms of academic or social goals?

Current thinking tends to favor the latter goal. Indeed, there is strong belief that an immigrant student's academic successes are often dependant upon his social successes. Tom Hale, State TESOL Program Specialist, writes in a handbook for classroom teachers that, "The idea that second languages cannot be learned unless 'taught' has been seriously questioned, and considerable evidence has been gathered which supports the notion that second languages can be most effectively and efficiently learned through concentrated interaction with those who speak those languages natively... the major objective should be to provide ample opportunity and encouragement for the non-English speakers to freely interact with their English speaking peers from whom they will learn to speak and understand most of their English"*

A keen observer of the Hawaiian scene would have to agree with Mr. Hale's analysis. In fact, the language learning process which he describes has produced what is now often referred to as "Hawaiian Dialect", our state's own brand of English!

But the tension in TESL is this: Should we settle for social adjustment and Hawaiian Dialect, or should we expect our immigrant students to learn standard English and to speak it well? This is a difficult question.

On the one hand, it can be well argued that children will learn to speak the way their peers speak, and our efforts for "Correctness" in English will make no difference. Furthermore, most of our students will spend their lives in Hawaii, in which case local dialect will serve them sufficiently well.

In addition, the state's TESL program is not really equipped to actually "teach the language" on any serious scale. Only in the Honolulu District are there a few schools where TESL teachers have a primary teaching responsibility. In each of the state's six rural districts, such as my own, the TESL program consists of only one TESL teacher, assigned to service a multitude of elementary and secondary schools. In this situation, the TESL person acts as a resource teacher, conferring with and advising teachers and administrators, testing and counseling students, and guiding a tutorial program. These "tutors", in turn, are not required to teach, but as paraprofessionals their job is simply to assist classroom teachers who have relatively large numbers of non-English speaking

*Thomas M. Hale, "Some Guidelines Concerning the Role of the Regular Classroom Teachers and School Administrators in Assisting the Non-English Speaking Students in Hawaii's Public Schools," Office of Instructional Services, Dept. of Education, State of Hawaii Aug. 1973.

students. The role of TESL, therefore, is one of helping the assimilation of immigrant students into the district schools.

Concurrent with this *decreased* emphasis upon special English language instruction for immigrant students, there is now an *increasing* interest in bi-lingual education---which includes teaching immigrant students in their native language. Hawaii's Department of Education is considering a pilot program within one district in which the Ilocano language would actually replace English as the language of instruction in certain subjects, and instructional materials in Ilocano would be developed. This would initially involve lower elementary Filipino children at selected schools, but the program might be expanded to other grade levels, other school districts, and other immigrant languages.

William Cunningham, TESL coordinator for the Windward Oahu District of the Department of Education, State of Hawaii, has a M.A. in TESL from Columbia University Teachers College. Prior to teaching in Hawaii, he taught for several years in the Philippines.

But the opposite horn of the controversy has not withered away. The sentiment does persist among a number of classroom teachers and others that the greater need is more *English instruction* for the immigrant student, as opposed to social assimilation or bi-lingualism (which themselves have conflicting strategies). From this point of view, TESL should concentrate more heavily upon being an instructional instrument in the state's schools. We should raise our sights. These aims, however, run directly into the debate over standard English vs. Hawaiian Dialect, of trying to "teach" a language vs. the reality of peer learning.

I find that this tension is expressed in a double standard in my own life, a double standard between school and home. At home, my younger children, whose language acquisition has been entirely in Hawaii, are incapable of using a number of standard English patterns, such as in asking questions. (A good example of the relative weight of peer and parental influences!) They grow on a rich diet of Hawaiian Dialect, both at school and at play. And I try to correct their speech. But why should I correct them, why worry? Yet I do, because I know that outside of the local speech community my children would be at a social disadvantage. Like it or not, the world has its hang ups, and judging people by their speech is one of them. But if I am concerned about my own children's language, should I be any less concerned about the children I am employed to teach? Is it sufficient for them to be consigned to a "language ghetto" all their lives? A ghetto in itself may be a pleasant enough place to live, but what makes a ghetto a ghetto is that it is difficult to leave it. On the other hand, assuming my concerns are valid, is this really a matter which I have any power to influence at all? Should I, and can I?

And so the objectives of TESL become complicated by the broader issues of education in Hawaii. Our schools repeatedly come under public attack and defense. What is the meaning of our high school diplomas? Is a diploma intended to signify a certain level of competence in reading, writing, and speech, or rather that a student has attended school for twelve years? Public schools are under pressure to graduate as many students as possible, to avoid drop-outs, yet, on the other hand, to toughen standards. Is it even possible to have the best of both worlds?

Although issues raised here apply specifically to Hawaii, they probably have a wider relevance also. What should be the goals of TESL in this state's public schools? Well, I promised you no answers, only a question. I hope I have been sensitive to both sides of that question.

PROBLEMS IN CLOZE TESTING RE-EXAMINED

A Reply to Roger K. Williams

by Kenneth G. Aitken

Cloze tests are deceptively simple reading tests that merit greater consideration by ESL teachers. The purpose of this article is to reexamine three issues pertinent to the use of cloze procedure that were recently raised by Williams (1974). In order to familiarize the reader with the subject, I will first describe the construction of a cloze test, then I will review each of the three issues in question and propose explanations to clarify the issues.

Cloze tests, pioneered by Wilson Taylor (1953), are constructed by simply randomly deleting every n-th word from a prose passage. The subject must then supply an appropriate fill-in by guessing from the remaining context. Pack (1973) suggests an every-fifth-word deletion pattern over a 250 word passage. However any n-th word pattern will do. A fifty deletion test seems to be a convenient length and provide a reasonable sample of the passage.

Williams (1974) raises three crucial issues concerning the validity, hence, utility of cloze tests in ESL:

(1). Cloze tests only partially parallel the reading process.

(2). There seems to be a special talent involved in being successful on a cloze test.

(3). Crucial content words are often omitted which cannot be supplied by examining the context.

Do cloze tests only partially parallel the reading process? Williams argues that reading and listening are decoding process; that is to say they are skills of reception rather than production. Filling in blanks, then, would require production skills as it is an encoding process. Recently, however psycholinguists have begun to question the assumption that encoding and decoding skills are autonomous from each other. Holtzman (1967) has suggested that there is an integrative factor of language use which he calls "linguistic perceptual expectancy". This factor, which Spolsky (1968) calls "redundancy utilization," underlies both the so-called encoding skills of speaking and writing, and the decoding skills of listening and reading. Goodman (1969:82) makes this point regarding the reading process:

> Research has demonstrated that the reader does not process print sequentially, but rather in a manner which reflects his use of language at every opportunity. Expectancies about syntax and semantics within context lead to hypotheses which can be confirmed (or disconfirmed) with only a small portion of the cues in the text.

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Oller (1973) states that Goodman's observation applies "in the case of every observable aspect of language usage." Assuming the Goodman hypothesis is correct, then there is an encoding or production skill as well as an inseparable decoding or receptive skill in every act of reading.

Consider what happens when a subject

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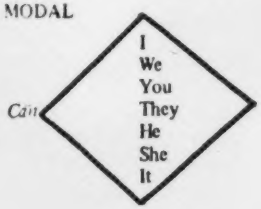
MORPHOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTIC COMPLEMENTATION OF TWO MODALS AND THREE AUXILIARIES

By Dr. Yao Shen

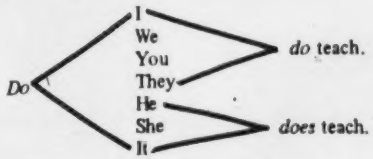
The subject of this short article is the two modals: *can* and *will*, and the three auxiliaries: *do*, *have*, and *be*. Their string formation and occurrence in sentences have been treated in detail in two previous series of articles in this journal. (See Yao Shen, "Supplementation of Opposites in Simple Predicate Expansion," Vol. 4, Nos. 1-4 (1970-71), and Alice C. Pack, "The Functions of Be, Have, Do, Can and Will," Vol. 7, Nos. 1-3 (1973-74). The present article attempts to demonstrate the morphological and syntactic complementation of these five words as modals and auxiliaries, Their morphological forms are of two major categories: 1) the occurrence and non-occurrence of subject-agreement forms that distinguish modals and auxiliaries, and 2) the occurrence and non-occurrence of participle forms as the second member in a two-member string in which the first member is a modal or an auxiliary. The syntactic arrangements are those of the five words in verb strings. The purpose of this short article is to call attention to the individual characteristics of these five words in sentences.

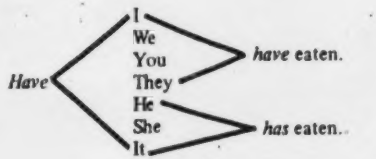
Morphologically modals and auxiliaries are distinguished from each other by the fact that the former does not have subject-agreement, the latter does.

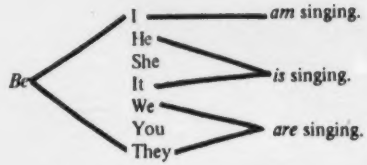
MODAL



AUXILIARY







The occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) of subject-agreement (S-a) that distinguish modals and auxiliaries can be represented in the following way.

	S-a
Modal	–
Auxiliary	+

Modals and auxiliaries occur in two-member strings.

When the first member in a two-member string is a modal, the following member is in the base form, having no suffix, *-ø*: Modal + *-ø*. The base form of a word must be distinguished from its infinitive. An infinitive is marked by *to*: *to go;* a base form is not: *go*.

can + *-ø*: John can go-ø.
will + *-ø*: John will go-ø.

When the first member in a two-member string is an auxiliary, the suffix of the following member is *-ø*, *-n*, or *-ing*: Auxiliary + *-ø*, Auxiliary + -n, or Auxiliary + -ing.

The suffix of the member following auxiliary *do* is *-ø*. (The word is in the base form.)

do + *-ø*: John does go-ø.

The suffix of the member following auxiliary *have* is *-n* (the past participle form).

have + *-n*: John has go-ne.

The suffix of the member following auxiliary *be* is either *-n* (the past participle form or *-ing* (the present participle form).

be + *-n*: John is go-ne.
be + *-ing*: John is go-ing.

The complementation of the suffixes of the members following their respective auxiliaries is as follows:

do + *-ø*
have + *-n*
be + *-n*, *-ing*

The above information is summarized below according to the occurrence (+) or non-occurrence (-) of *-n* or *-ing* (the participle forms) in the second member following *do*, *have*, and *be* as the first member.

2nd member / 1st member	-n	-ing
do	-	-
have	+	-
be	+	+

The complementation of the morphological behavior in both subject-agreement (S-a) that distinguishes modals and auxiliaries,

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and that of the participle forms *-n*, and *-ing* in the members following a modal or an auxiliary: *do*, *have*, or *be* are summarized below.

	S-a	-n	-ing
Modal	-	-	-
do	+	-	-
have	+	+	-
be	+	+	+

Syntactically a verb string begins with a modal or an auxiliary carrying tense, and ends with the verb. The following are some examples.

	Tense		Verb
John	does		go.
John	has		gone.
John	is		gone.
John	was		going.
John	can	be	going.
John	had	been	going.
John	would have	been	gone.

Modals do not succeed each other, that is, there is no occurrence (-) of modals in a successive sequence.

2nd member / 1st member	can	will
can	-	-
will	-	-

Auxiliaries (Aux) may or may not succeed another auxiliary.

Auxiliary *do* does not occur with another auxiliary in a sequence.

	Aux	Verb	
May	does	do	the dishes.
They	did	have	some money.
(You)	do	be	careful.

Auxiliary *have* does not succeed itself.

	Aux	Verb	
The woman	has	had	money.

Auxiliary *be* can succeed itself.

	Aux	Aux	Verb	
The paper	was	being	typed.	

When auxiliaries *have* and *be* both occur, *have* precedes *be*.

	Aux	Aux	Verb
The papers	have	been	done.
John	has	been	having fun.
The girls	had	been	being earnest.

The following summarizes the occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) of successive sequences of the three auxiliaries: *do*, *have*, and *be*.

2nd member / 1st member	do	have	be
do	-	-	-
have	-	-	+
be	-	-	+

In a verb string in which a modal and an auxiliary both occur, the modal begins the string; the auxiliary follows. However, the auxiliary is either *have* or *be*, but not *do*. The first sentence below with * is an example indicating this characteristic of *do*.

	Modal	Aux	Verb
*John	will	do	go.
John	can	be	going.
John	will	be	going.
John	could	be	gone.
John	would	have	gone.

The following summarizes the occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) of a modal *can* or *will*, followed by an auxiliary: *do*, *have* or *be*.

2nd member / 1st member	do	have	be
Modal		+	+

A possible long verb string in Present Day English that begins with a modal indicating tense, followed by a string of three auxiliaries, and ends with the verb is as follows.

	Tense			Verb
The paper	will	have been	being	typed.
John	could	have been	being	driven.

Between modal *can* and modal *will* there is also a complementation when they occur before auxiliaries *have* and *be*. Present tense form of *can* normally does not occur before auxiliary *have*. The first sentence below with * is an example indicating this characteristic of *can*. However, the past tense of *can*, and both the present tense and the past tense of *will* all occur before auxiliary *have*.

Present tense
* John can have driven it.
John will have driven it.
Past tense
John could have driven it.
John would have driven it.

This exception in the present tense form of *can* preceding auxiliary *have*, nevertheless, does not apply to auxiliary *be*.

Present tense
John can be driving it.
John will be driving it.
Past tense
John could be driving it.
John would be driving it.

The following shows the occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) of the two tense forms of *can* and *will* preceding auxiliaries *have* and *be*.

2nd member / 1st member	have	be
can	-	+
will	+	+
could	+	+
would	+	+

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DRILLING ENGLISH AUXILIARY VERBS IN ESL CLASSES

by Donald M. Decker

The effective mastery of the various auxiliary verbs is one of the major challenges faced by a speaker of another language while he is learning English. Few other languages of the world have anything quite like English auxiliary verbs, and none makes use of them in exactly the same way. Yet, they are one of the principal features of the structure of English and are called into play in nearly all transformations of verb phrases. Until they are mastered, the student will have considerable difficulty in all four basic skills in English: aural comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

The two most commonly used auxiliary verbs are "be" and "do": "Are you studying English? Do you like this book?" "Have" often functions as an auxiliary verb: "Have you finished the lesson?" Eight modal auxiliary verbs are also commonly used: "can," "could," "will," "would," "must," "should," "may," and "might."

All of these auxiliary verbs can be effectively taught by using specifically designed audio-lingual exercises. Students generally enjoy the practice exercises which are to be described step by step. Before they are begun, however, the instructor should help the students learn the most usual meanings of the auxiliary verbs in whatever way he deems most appropriate. In some cases, the attempt may be made to find the nearest equivalents in the mother tongue. It is extremely important that the students have sufficient command of basic English to understand the simple vocabulary to be used in the exercises as well as the most usual meaning of each of the auxiliary verbs to be practiced.

The first step in the drills is to ask the students, one by one, questions which begin with auxiliary verbs and which may logically be answered in the affirmative, using short answers, as follows:

Can you see me? (Instructor's Question) *--Yes, I can.* (Students Answer)

Would you like to visit Florida? *--Yes, I would.*

Will you eat dinner today? *--Yes, I will.*

Since each question is phrased in the "you" form, each corresponding answer will consist of "yes, I . . ." plus the same auxiliary verb employed at the beginning of the question. This is an effective way to initiate the auxiliary verb drills because it (a) is relatively easy, (b) takes the form of a meaningful dialogue, and (c) emphasizes both the aural grasp and the oral production of the various auxiliary verbs. This type of drill should be done until each student can produce the oral replies freely and easily. At the same time the instructor should be sure that the meaning of each auxiliary verb is clearly understood.

The second step is to ask similarly phrased questions, but which evoke negative answers, as follows:

Can you speak English perfectly? *No, I can't.*

Would you like to be sick now? *No, I wouldn't.*

Could you write when you were a baby? *No, I couldn't.*

As each question uses the "you" form, each answer consists of "No, I . . ." plus the negative contraction of the same auxiliary verb used at the beginning of the question, except in those cases in which contractions are not commonly used as in "may not," "might not," and "am not." The contractions which may be drilled in this manner are: "isn't," "aren't," "wasn't," "weren't," "don't," "doesn't," "didn't," "haven't," "hasn't," "hadn't," "can't," "couldn't" "won't," "wouldn't," "mustn't," and "shouldn't." This step provides the same

three benefits as the first step plus the additional one of helping students become familiar with the use of negative forms of the auxiliary verbs. As a special case, the short answer with "am" should be contracted as "No, I'm not."

The first two steps, providing ample practice in the use of the affirmative and negative short answers, should be reviewed until the answers are supplied quickly and easily.

The third step consists of presenting the two types of questions in mixed order, as follows:

Can you see me? *--Yes, I can.*

Should you eat during the class? *--No, I shouldn't.*

Do you drink water every day? *-Yes, I do.*

Have you brought an apple to class? *-No I haven't.*

Could you write when you were two years old? *--No, I couldn't*

Will you leave this room after the class? *-Yes, I will.*

Would you like to speak English well? *Yes, I would.*

Must you sleep all day? *-No, I mustn't.*

Did you bring a pencil to class? *-Yes, I did.*

Will you visit your uncle tomorrow? *-No, I won't.*

Do you know every word in English? *-No, I don't.*

Had you seen some American movies last year? *-Yes, I had.*

Use of the mixed questions will confirm the ability of the students to comprehend the questions and to answer them correctly according to their individual meanings. This step should be repeated several times and on different occasions until the instructor feels that all or nearly all the students have mastered it.

The fourth step is to introduce pronoun subjects other than "you" in the questions. these should be used in the questions and repeated in the answers, as follows:

Do you want to speak English well? *-Yes, we do.*

Does she have black hair? (indicating another student.) *No, she doesn't.*

May it rain today? *--Yes, it may.*

Should he study in order to learn? (indicating another student) *--Yes, he should.*

Would they like to speak English well? *(indicating the other students.) Yes, they would.*

Should we sleep during the class? *--No, we shouldn't.*

Will it snow this afternoon? *--No, it won't.*

Is she listening to us? *--Yes, she is.*

Must we eat in order to live? *--Yes, we must.*

Did they bring hats to class? *-No, they didn't.*

Does he have a pencil? *-Yes, he does.*

May I speak to you in English? *--Yes, you may.*

Have we begun this lesson? *-Yes, we have.*

Once the use of varied pronouns is mastered together with the correct corresponding auxiliary verbs, the students are ready for step five, which consists of the use of common and proper nouns in the questions and of the corresponding pronouns in the short answers, as follows:

Is the sun shining now? *-Yes, it is.*

Have some Americans visited your country? *--Yes, they have.*

Does a horse run on four legs? *-Yes, it does.*

Should most children learn to read? *-Yes, they should.*

Did Marco Polo discover America? *--No, he didn't.*

Have the other students and you spoken English today? *-Yes, we have.*

Will an airmail letter go by boat? *-No, it won't.*

Would your brother like a new car? *-Yes, he would.*

Although this type of construction is very common in English dialogues, it requires a great deal of practice before it is mastered.

Step six begins the use of double questions eliciting complete sentences in the second answers, as follows:

Can you see me? *--Yes, I can.*

What can you do? *-I can see you.*

Will you eat dinner today? *--Yes, I will.*

What will you do? *-I'll eat dinner today.*

Has your brother learned German? *--No, he hasn't.*

What hasn't he done? *--He hasn't learned German.*

This is one of the most difficult steps of all because several complex factors are involved. The first challenge is to the memory since the student must recall the total wording of the original question. This may be especially difficult if the question is long:

Would you read a newspaper if you had one? *--Yes, I would.*

What would you do? *--I'd read a newspaper if I had one.*

Should you try to speak better English? *--Yes, I should.*

What should you do? *--I should try to speak better English.*

Must a student study in order to learn? *--Yes, he must.*

What must he do? *--He must study in order to learn.*

A second challenge involves the reduction or contraction of the auxiliary verb when it precedes the main verb in the complete sentence. Contractions which may be practiced in this way are: "I'm," "you're," "he's" (for "he is" and "he has"), "I've," "I'll," and "I'd" (for "I would" and "I had"). The auxiliaries "was," "were," "can," "could," "must," and "should" are not really contracted but are reduced in pronunciation and stress in the full sentence, as follows:

Can you read? *--yes, I can. (The vowel of "can" is full and receives heavy stress.)*

What can you do? *--I can read. (The vowel of "can" is reduced and receives weak stress.)*

Another challenge occurs when the commonly used "do," "does," and "did" are omitted and the corresponding verb forms are used in the complete sentences, as follows:

Do you like apples? *--Yes, I do.*
What do you do? *--I like apples.*

Does he speak English? *--Yes, he does.*
What does he do? *--He speaks English.*

Did you bring a pencil to class? *--Yes, I did.*

What did you do? *--I brought a pencil to class.*

It is generally advisable to begin the practice of eliciting complete sentences with the easier step one questions first and gradually progress on through steps two through five. Step five questions, the most challenging, will be presented as follows:

Should most children learn to read? *--Yes, they should.*

What should they do? *--They should learn to read.*

Does a horse run on four legs? *--Yes, it does.*

What does it do? *--It runs on four legs.*

Have the other students spoken French today? *--No, they haven't.*

What haven't they done? *--They haven't spoken French today.*

Are many people trying to learn English? *--Yes, they are.*

What are they doing? *--They're trying to learn English.*

The seventh and final step is to use the auxiliary verb drills in a variety of interesting ways. Questions of all the different types may be asked in mixed order so that students are challenged to respond with complete flexibility according to the meaning of the question and the appropriateness of the answer. The "chain technique" may be applied, whereby the teacher asks the first question of one student, who answers it. His neighbor then asks the "What...?" question of his neighbor on the other side, who answers it. Also, the students may do this by drawing slips of paper with questions and asking them aloud of one another. Students may also be encouraged to ask their own spontaneous questions of the instructor and of one another.

The exercises described above can be made enjoyable because they are easily adaptable to real-life situations. Students gradually feel that they are making effective use of the English language. Once they have learned to handle the auxiliary verbs with ease, they have overcome one of the greatest challenges in the process of mastering the English language.

CLOZE TESTING

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responds to the items on a cloze test. The subject must guess a word to fill a blank and complete a sequence, on the basis of incomplete information. This draws on both the productive and receptive skills previously discussed. The information he has available in the context allows him by analysis, to synthesize, or guess whole. Simultaneously, that synthesis, or guess, may become part of the next analysis required to produce some future synthesis. Oller (1973:114) explains the process as follows:

> It is interesting to note that the process of taking a cloze test involves more than 'passive' reading. By sampling the information that is present the subject formulates hypotheses, or expectations, about information that is to follow. By sampling subsequent sequences, he either confirms or disconfirms these expectations. If the expectations are disconfirmed they must be revised and new hypotheses must be formed."

If the above assumptions concerning the reading process and the process of writing a cloze test are valid, then we can say that cloze tests do, indeed, parallel the reading process.

Williams second issue was that Carroll et al (1959) suggest that there seems to be a special talent involved in being successful on a cloze test. Two major limitations to the Carroll et al study that detract from the above generalization were based on the results from a very small number of subjects. The second limitation was that they marked correct only exact word replacements then justified their generalization by correlating the test results with the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT). Oller (1972) has found that the any-acceptable word replacement scoring method is the most reliable and convenient way of scoring cloze tests of ESL students. One might also reasonably question Carroll et al's procedure of correlating test scores with a language aptitude test. It would probably be better to use a proficiency criterion for validation (Oller 1973).

Darnell (1968) used a scoring method which drew upon a previously determined domain of responses from native speakers for each cloze item. This technique yielded a high (.83) correlation with the *Test of English as a Foreign Language*. Oller (1972) found similarly high correlations between cloze tests marked by the any acceptable word method, and the *UCLA ESL Placement Exam*. Stubbs and Tucker (1974) also report high correlations (.76) with the *English Entrance Exam* used at the American University of Beirut. Williams reports that the Carroll study found that success in cloze tests of foreign language is independent of foreign language proficiency, but it does not appear that Carroll used proficiency as a criterion. It seems, then, that Carroll's conclusions were hastily drawn.

The third issue that Williams raises in his article is that crucial content words are often omitted which cannot be supplied by examining the context. He suggests that rather than a random deletion system that "it might be better for test constructors to delete function and context words which should be apparent from context." His reasoning is that:

(1). Students who have not previously encountered the concepts in the passage may do poorly.

(2). Native speakers should be able to get a high or perfect score on a cloze test for non-native speakers.

Each of Williams two reasons were discussed in light of his recommendation. His first reason raises the question, what is the purpose of the cloze test? If cloze tests are used as a pre-assessment of knowledge of the subject matter of a passage then we certainly do not want to penalize the student whose entering competencies into the task are greater than the average. If a cloze is used as a post-assessment of reading comprehension of an assigned reading then it is just those crucial content words that we are most likely to be interested in. If a cloze test is used to determine the readability of a text to

ascertain its suitability for a class, we certainly do not want to discriminate against the experienced individual because it may well be his familiarity with the subject, not his reading skill (whatever you define that as!) that aids him in reading any passage. Essentially Williams argument, as I see it, is that language skills must be measured separately from one's experience. I contend that this is impossible: language cannot be separated from its use in communication, or from the individual's experience bank of interactions with his perceived world. If, then, a cloze test is used as a language proficiency measure, it would not be inappropriate to delete words that cause the student to probe his experience bank for a response.

Williams, of course, is right when he cautions teachers to select passages for cloze that are appropriate to the class or contextual domain they wish to test. Cloze tests so chosen and marked by the any-appropriate-word system will in all likelihood be valid.

The second reason Williams gives for deleting only function words and content words apparent from the context is that he feels that native speakers should be able to make high or even perfect scores on a cloze test designed for second language speaker. It seems that this would be more of a language proficiency test than a reading test. This is an attractive possibility, but is this what Williams wants to use cloze tests for? The every n-th word system is the simplest method and is still quite satisfactory. We have already found that Darnell (1968) and Oller (1972) using the usual method of construction have obtained high correlations with generally accepted measures of ESL proficiency. By changing the deletion system to make a cloze test easier for a native speaker, one would suspect that the internal consistancy of the items and the test reliability for ESL students might be upset. Using an every n-th word deletion system to construct cloze tests, Oller (1972) found that out of 150 items only seven failed to discriminate significantly at the .05 level by a *t* test between the top 50% and bottom 50% of students. Other studies (Oller 1973) have yielded similar results. All these studies using an every n-th word deletion ratio had Kuder Richardson reliabilities between .80 and .90.

The simplicity of test construction is one of the most attractive features of cloze tests. Rather than complicate the construction process, it would be more practical in most circumstances to use an easier reading selection to construct the test from. Oller (1972) found that cloze tests which were rated "very easy" by the Flesch formula (1948) and on the Fourth grade by the Dale and Chall (1948) system yielded correlations between .63 and .80 with the various parts of the UCLA ESL Placement Exam. The subjects were 398 foreign students in UCLA of which 210 were graduate students. Not only would it be more practical to use an easier reading selection than change the deletion system, but also it would be practically as valid as using a more difficult passage.

The construction of cloze tests have been reviewed with the three criticisms of them raised by Williams. The claim that cloze tests only partially parallel the reading process, has been refuted and it has been shown that current psycholinguistic theory suggests an integrative language factor that does not separate reception from production in language use. I have challenged the notion that a special talent is needed in being successful on a cloze test, citing Oller's (1973) criticism of Carroll's procedures and argued that changing the deletion procedure from every n-th word to a system that would make all fill-ins for deletions apparent from the context is unsound and impractical.

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THE GAME SETTING: AN AVENUE TO MORE ENGLISH

by Emilio Cortez

The language-teaching game, especially when used with the young second-language learner, has been widely acclaimed as an effective and highly useful pedagogic aid. Faye Bumpass expresses the feelings of many ESOL teachers when she says:

> Games can be an invaluable aid in teaching a foreign language on the elementary level. Nothing intrigues children more than the promise of learning a new game. By taking advantage of this playful inclination, the teacher is able to build new vocabulary concepts and to give additional practice in maintaining a previously learned skill.[1]

When playing a game, children focus more intently upon everything said. A situation which, needless to say, helps foster language acquisition.

In a game setting various opportunities arise for furthering the students' knowledge of English. Even prior to a game a host of contextually appropriate utterances are possible. Consider some of the following examples:

"Are you ready for our game?"
"Who's ready to play a game?"
"Let's play a game."
"Who wants to play a game?"
"It's time for our game."
"Today we're going to play a game."
"I think we're ready for our game."
"It's game time"

It is suggested that ESOL teachers be *consistent* in their use of language when announcing "language-game time." After the children have grown accustomed to a specific introductory expression, the teacher may select a different opening statement, and so on.

Many times just the prospect of a game acts as a motivator. Often ESOL teachers fail to take full advantage of their students' spontaneous spurts of heightened interest when a prospective game is announced. Such heightened interest can yield positive results when coupled with an appropriate English utterance which is consistently reinforced.

During competitive games in which points are awarded, team efforts must be periodically assessed. Here again, a variety of English sentences can be subtly introduced such as:

"I wonder who's winning?"
"How many points does Team B have?"
"How many points does Team A need to win?"
"What's the score?"

On occasion the entire class may even participate in counting points. Such choral practice reinforces number concepts in a most meaningful way for young children.

It cannot be overstressed that, in addition to the language game proper, many expressions can be taught to the second-language learner if a primacy of consistency in presentation is maintained. By so doing, we can begin to capitalize more fully on the almost limitless versatility of the language-teaching game.

[1] Faye Bumpass, *Teaching Young Students English as a Second Language* (New York: American Book Company, 1963), p. 143.

Morphological and. . .

(continued from page 12)

Words in sentences occur in strings. However, it is important to remember that among words there can be morphological and syntactic complementations or both. It is therefore hoped that this article has demonstrated this point. The examples used are two modals and three auxiliaries as they occur in sentences.

BOOK REVIEW

Eugene J. Hall.
English Self-Taught: A Multimedia Programmed Course in English as a Second Language.
New York: Regents Publishing Company. Price $ 3.95.

English Self-Taught (EST) boldly claims to teach a student how to "...speak, read, and write English without a teacher, without translation, and at his own pace." Twelve volumes, accompanied by correlated tape recordings, comprise the course. Each book contains six units, and each unit is divided into sections for conversation and dialog (to develop understanding and speaking skills), grammar and reading (to aid comprehension and writing skills), and a short mastery check. Each book also has a longer examination the students take before progressing to the next volume.

Mr. Hall has done an excellent job in providing the students with explicit instructions. In the conversation portion, students respond to the recordings of tasks printed with illustrations in colored boxes. For feedback, the students then look at matching colored boxes to the side which contain the completed versions of the tasks. The answer boxes must be covered with a mask before checking. Dialogs are done in comic-strip format which I think the students will like. Grammar exercises are usually fill-in or multiple choice items with numerous examples. The readings (in the earlier stages) are descriptions of illustrations contained in the students' books followed by comprehension questions.

I like the numerous exercises contained in EST. They involve the students, so there will be no "sitting in the back of the classroom." On the other hand, poorly motivated learners will gain little from this self-instructional approach. It's too easy to look at the answer boxes before thinking the problems through. And while EST contains some pronunciation help, all self-teaching materials usually fail to provide the assistance needed to correct pronunciation errors students don't perceive.

Michael E. Foley

TESL WORKSHOP
SUMMER 1975

The department of Continuing Education of Brigham Young University-Hawaii Campus has announced a 2 week, 3 credit hour summer workshop in *TESL Methods and Materials* in June 1975 with Alice C. Pack as the instructor. Details will be published in the Spring 1975 TESL Reporter.

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SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING- A CLASSROOM 'EXERCISE' OR AN 'ACTIVITY' FOR INTERACTION?

by Lachman M. Khubchandani

In recent decades, many advances have been made in *instruction strategies*, e.g. innovations in training language teachers, preparing more effective aids (manuals, tapes, films, etc.) based on linguistic research, with the attention focused on one idealized variety (the standard norm) of that language.

Today, enormous progress has been claimed in the production of textbooks at all levels from "pictionaries" and conversational cut-out books to individually programmed kits which teachers are finding highly superior to a conventional textbook. In individualized instructional programs teaching is not solely confined to a classroom (or a language laboratory) but the "instructor" adjusts his role as a "learning coordinator", guiding and tracking the student through a varied sequence of activities and learning environments.

But compared to the energy, time, and money spent on learning second and foreign languages in the 'literate' world, one finds little satisfaction among instructors and pupils regarding the levels of proficiency acquired in these languages. The present programs seem to be operating in a vicious circle of selecting teaching and curricular materials and then assessing the proficiency of pupils on the basis of the *same* material.

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Language as a social activity gets its meaning by the *context* in which it is used. A living language without this kind of meaning can be regarded as a *myth* of the classroom. Present language teaching programs, whether conducted through a reading-based system (inherited through the classical language teaching tradition) or through an oral-aural system, regard classroom (extended to language laboratory) as the sole reservoir of language learning. The target language is taught as an "exercise" or as a preparation for eventual utilization goals, but having no immediate reinforcement plans whatsoever outside the classroom, which makes learner's task rather streneous and intensely motivated (Khubchandani 1967).

Rational and Reflexive Demands of Language

There is now more understanding among educationists that "teaching" and "learning" are *not* mirror images of one another. Linguists and language teaching experts have to know more about the *actual processes* by which a learner internalizes the experiences in a second or a foreign language. Classroom teaching does not fully envisage the difficulties encountered by a language learner in functioning through that language.

In second and foreign language teaching, teachers and text materials pay sole attention to the explicit, unambiguous, overt manifestation through language. Such *rationalized use* of language is only one of the sociolinguistic variables in actual speech activity. A native speaker's use of speech, in natural environments is an *integral* activity relevant to the context and purpose of verbalization. His actual discourse gets modulated on a scale of *rational* and *reflexive* extremes. This reflexive use of language is characterized by implicit regulation depending on identity pressures, suggestion, inference, and covert design.

The classroom "exercise" in language teaching remains an end in itself; no communicative task is actually performed (only rehearsals are conducted for eventual confrontation with unknown audiences). It is acquired as an "artifact" in which speakers and listeners remain detached and uninvolved from the communication point of view. Whereas, speech as a living phenomena is mapped on the prevailing extra-linguistic context, and it is very much a "fact" in which participants are involved (much more actively in inter-personal situations and rather passively in mass media contexts).

Interaction Strategies

Language laboratories have been provided for getting to grips with the raw material in a foreign speech. But the laboratory still retains the classroom flavor of 'exercise' in the sense that no communicative task is actually accomplished through speech. For this purpose, a real language laboratory is the interaction opportunities in controlled but challenging situations, where a second language is confronted as an integral meaningful activity.

Hence, in the total structure of a second language learning system, it is essential to coordinate between *instruction strategies* (teacher with classroom and laboratory aids) and *interaction strategies* (graded and controlled interaction programs where attention is focused on "event" rather than on "expression").

Dr. Lachman M. Khubchandani, Professor of Indian Linguistics at Zagreb University, Yugoslavia, is a Senior Fellow at the East-West Center, University of Hawaii.

Author of many works concerning sociolinguistics and language teaching problems in developing nations, he is Chairman of the Adolphe Quetelet Work Group for Language Statistics, Research Committee on Sociolinguistics.

For a better understanding of the speech phenomena within a broad behavioral framework, it may be useful to make clear distinction between "speech" as an *integral activity* in a society and "language" as an ideal norm (Khubchandani 1973). One of the major shortcomings of the current state of affairs in most of the second language teaching programs is their exclusive concern with the teaching of language as an ideal norm, and thus shelving aside the characteristics of the functional differentiation as prevailing among the native speakers of that language and of grassroots "folk"

multilingualism as found among plural illiterate societies, i.e. acquiring non-standard speech forms from actual usage as an integral activity.

Most language experts do recognize the importance of experience in foreign environments for effective control of a foreign language. But they assume that a sustained exposure to a language "exercise" through native informants and tapes sufficiently equips pupils for eventual "activity" through that language. In performing skills (e.g. swimming, driving) such an assumption would be questioned seriously. It is rather crucial in the total learning system to regard proficiency in a foreign language closer to the requirements of performing skills rather than treating it as a course of study.

An average person acquiring a *second* language (other than his native speech) by functioning through speech events in natural environments gains proficiency in the linguistic component of speech along with the sensibility of handling the network of options in that speech conditioned by the pressures of propriety, identity, cultural values, and demands on verbalization, without much directed effort and learning strains on his part which are otherwise experienced when learning a foreign language in a formal way. An adequate learning system must also utilize the strategies of linguistic competence component and of performance awareness (sensibility) component simultaneously, and not leave the later component to the subsequent stage, i.e. entering into the *activity stage* after the successful completion of the *exercise stage*.

Communication in Second Language

Communication is a two-sided activity. For an effective control over a non-native language, it is necessary to provide *opportunities* for performing graded communicative tasks and create *confidence* among the participants through the successes achieved in limited transactions--without the interference of direct monitoring, merely providing prompting where necessary.

In second language and foreign language learning situations, a learner aims at acquiring the competence (active or mere passive) of functioning in that language, i.e. exercising options depending on sociolinguistic variables, and not according to the norms of the target language. Many contrastive studies tend to treat the issue of language transfer (positive or negative) in a rather straitjacket manner, starting with the presumption that all types of interference from the source language are unacceptable in the target language behavior; whereas in everyday life reality one notices no such clear-cut dichotomy of *acceptable* versus *unacceptable* utterances in a language. Certain deviations from the norm could be more appropriate, purposeful, amusing, neutral, socially marked, pejorative, ambiguous, hazardous, unintelligible, etc., in specific situational contexts.

It, therefore, becomes crucial to have an adequate knowledge of sociolinguistic variables of a region or of a speech community in establishing a hierarchy of difficulty as encountered by a learner due to his inhibitions of the source language and attitudes towards the target language. We need to examine the pedagogical aspects of language learning in a sociolinguistic perspective to project the complex task of integrating the language 'exercise' techniques of classroom with the speech 'activity' in everyday life reality through *interactional strategies*, controlled and graded on the basis of behaviorally defined utilization goals.

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VALUING - An ESL Activity

by Donna Ilyin

In this activity students discuss a statement or a question. They give their own personal beliefs and feelings or tell a personal experience. They use natural English–with vocabulary and structures appropriate to their proficiency level.

The teacher selects a statement or a group of related statements or questions, analyzes the structures best used and reviews structures and vocabulary in context. The teacher arranges the review and structure presentation by difficulty and natural order. (Short information type answers and one word questions natural to conversation and discussion are used). The teacher evaluates the class readiness for using the structures and vocabulary. She uses lead questions with the group as a whole.

(If the class has never worked in buzz groups, the teacher selects 4 to 6 students and demonstrates how each person responds and asks other students in the group the questions. The teacher uses the main sentence or questions at this point.)

(If the class has worked in buzz groups, the teacher uses the main sentences or questions as a practice session in each buzz group.)

The teacher divides the class into buzz groups of 4 to 6 people. The students use only English and when possible the teacher tries to get a heterogeneous grouping of languages spoken by the students.

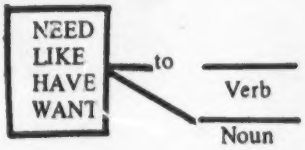
The teacher tells the students to give their own views and feelings and at the end of the discussion period asks one person from each group to report.

EXAMPLE

At the 150 level (about 12-14 weeks or 100-150 hours after a beginning adult ESL class has started).

Readiness Structures

Questions, affirmative and negative statements with present forms of BE, DO with common verbs, CAN with common verbs, and BE Going TO future with common verbs.

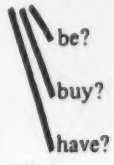


much, many, a lot of with count and non-count nouns too much, too many (excessive).

Lead Questions:

1. Do you have any plans for the future? (When students answer *yes* use additional questions below. When students answer *no* ask additional questions below.)

   Yes. What do you want to do?



(If appropriate to a more complete student response)

No. Don't you want to ____ do
be
buy
have
go

like ____ to ____
have
need

2. Can you _____ ?

Main Questions:

1. Do you have any problems about your future?

Yes? 2) What is your problem?

I want to _____

I don't want to _____

I like / have / need to _____

I don't like / have / need to _____

3. Is that (responses to number 2) a problem?
4. Why?
5. Can you or Can't you?

Examples of related questions 2,3,4 and 5 with a Yes answer to 1.

Student A: Do you have any problems about your future?
B: Yes.
A. What is your problem?
B. I want to read.
A. Is that a problem?
B. Yes.
A. Can't you read in Spanish?
B. Sure, but I can't read in English.
A. That's a problem.

Student A: Do you have any problems about your future?
B. Sure.
A. What is your problem?
B. I need to study.
A. Is that a problem?
B. Yes.
A. Why?
B. I don't have much time?
A. Why?
B. I work at night. I'm tired. I want to sleep.
A. Me too.

No 6. Don't you want to _____
have
need

7. Isn't that (response to 6) a problem?
8. Why?
9. Can you or can't you _____?

Variations on Main questions

What is every young boy's problem.
young girl's
young man's
young woman's
husband's
wife's
ESL students
ESL teachers
working student's
poor student's
old man's
old woman's
sick person's etc.

Is that a problem?
Why?
Can he/she? or Can't he/she?

Author's Note

Please write your comments and suggestions--if you try it on your class let me know what happens.

A DAILY DOZEN-
A Dozen Items from the Honolulu Daily to Start off-Warm up the ESL Class

by Jason Alter

During the Fall 1974 semester at the English Language Institute, University of Hawaii (Manoa), I taught a section in the Listening Comprehension series, ELI 80. I made it a practice to select a few items from the evening daily in Honolulu, the *Honolulu Star-Bulletin*, with which to enliven the class. I confined these selections to the front page. If the item was in large print, I merely held up the newspaper; otherwise I'd write the item on the board. This particular class was high-level, but I insist that one can utilize the technique at any level. The class included students from Hong Kong, Japan, Thailand, Indonesia, Taiwan, Viet Nam, the Republic of China, Korea, and Burma.

Here I list a dozen examples, along with comments on how to use them. Sometimes, there happened to be a picture as well, a ready-made visual aid. There are language-and-culture ramifications. Students react positively to language items from the real world; they learn current vocabulary and usage. Students' evaluations at the end of the semester (anonymously contributed in written form) testify to the efficacy of this technique.

1. **Senate OKs Rocky**
   a. Note the absence of an apostrophe in "OKs."
   b. OK backwards is K.O. (knockout)
   c. Note the penchant in the U.S. for giving nicknames to political leaders.
   d. Discuss various meanings of "rocky" as an adjective.

2. **Family' in Homeless Catch-22**
   a. The meaning of Catch-22 here?
   b. Other examples where a book title can serve as a noun like this?
   c. Other words with "-less" suffix?

3. **Man of Characters (Picture of new Prime Minister Takeo Miki, practicing traditional calligraphy)**
   a. Compare "Man of Character" and "Man of Characters."
   b. How many Chinese characters do you need to know to read a newspaper?
   c. Meaning of "He's a character"?

4. **Says It May Be Longest Recession Since 1945**
   a. Pronounciation of "says"?
   b. Compare "may be" and "maybe."
   c. Make a sentence with another word ending in "-est."
   d. Other words ending in "-ion"?
   e. Other uses of "since"?

5. **Who's lyin' on the table? (Picture of a local lioness being operated on)**
   a. Compare pronunciation of "lyin'" and "lion."
   b. Homonym for "who's"?
   c. Make sentences using both homonyms in "b."

6. **12-Month Rise Worst Since 1947**
   a. Words that rhyme with "worst"?
   b. Other expressions like "12-month"?
   c. "Translate" the headline into "regular" sentence form.

7. **Sugar Workers Offered a Bonus**
   a. Other words starting with the same sound of "su-"?
   b. Who did the offering?
   c. Other words ending with "-us"?

8. **Rocky Agrees to Cut Gifts**
   a. Note the two-word verb "agrees to."
   b. Compare "agrees to" and "agrees with."
   c. Note the semantic ambiguity in "cut."
   d. Words that rhyme with "gifts"?
   e. Other words that end in "-fts"?

9. **Ariyoshi, Doi Close with Big Isle Rally**
   a. Two pronunciations of "close"?
   b. Semantic ambiguity in "Big Isle Rally"? (In Hawaii, "Big Isle" refers to the Island of Hawaii.)
   c. Two homonyms for "isle"?

10. **Russians Cut Short Parade**
   a. Words that rhyme with "short"?
   b. Compare the pronunciation of "short" and "sort."
   c. Note the two-word verb "cut short."
   d. Semantic ambiguity in "cut short parade"?

11. **Pan Am & TWA to split Up Routes**
   a. Rearrange the letters of "split" to form another word.
   b. Two pronunciations of "routes"?
   c. Homonyms for each of the two pronunciations of "route"?
   d. Note the two-word verb "split up."

What I'm suggesting is that we can find countless examples of living-English from the daily paper. The teacher can judiciously pick and choose those that fit the particular occasion. Once the students are familiar with the technique, the pace of the class is enhanced immeasurably. One comment leads to another, and learning takes place.

TESL PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

The TESL Reporter will list openings for ESL and EFL teachers as they are received by the editor.

For information, applications, etc., please write direct to the listed names, schools, or districts. The TESL Reporter will not accept or forward information or applications from prospective employees or employers.

The Central Language Laboratory requires a lecturer (Akademischer Rat und Lektor) for teaching American English to future teachers of English (mainly first and second year students).

The contract will initially run for five years from 1 October 1975 with the possibility of permanent tenure.

Further particulars are obtainable from GESCHAFTSFUHRENDE LEITER, ZENTRALEINRICHTUNG SPRACHLABOR, 1 BERLIN 33, HABELSCHWERDTER ALLEE 45, West Germany.

The Central Colombo Americano de Cali is interested in applications from people with:

1. **Bachelors degree in TEFL**
2. **Masters in TEFL**
3. **People with experience in TEFL and or teaching experience and experience living and working in a second culture.**

Please direct inquiries to Charles F. Itzin Academic Director, CENTRO COLOMBO AMERICANO, Apartado Aereo 4525, Cali, Colombia.

WORKSHOPS IN FIJI

In response to a request by Dr. Carl Harris, Acting Director of the Church Educational System, Fiji, and through the Department of Continuing Education at the Brigham Young University-Hawaii Campus, four workshops were conducted for teachers at the L.D.S. Suva Primary School and the government schools in Suva, Fiji.

Dr. Sidney Jenson spent two weeks lecturing, demonstrating, and conducting supervised teaching of reading to elementary students.

Preston Larson of the Music Department was in Suva six weeks teaching music, including beginning piano courses. Arrangements were made for eight of the beginning students to continue lessons with a local instructor. Three pianos are available at the church school, but very few teachers had had any piano instruction before this workshop.

Alice C. Pack conducted a two-week workshop in teaching English as a Second Language. The last week was inservice teaching and demonstrations in conjunction with the opening week of school the last week in January.

Curt Fawson, Director of the BYU-HC Learning Resource Center, also spent the opening school week in Suva setting up library and media facilities for the school. He had just completed a media workshop in Tonga and was enroute to workshops in Samoa and Tahiti. Mr. Fawson and Mrs. Pack collaborated on some demonstration lessons using on-the-spot developed materials for teaching English to elementary school classes.

'Many incountry and on campus workshops are offered by the Department of Continuing Education. Included in the 1975 Summer Sessions are classes listed below. Instruction is provided primarily by members of the regular university faculty with the addition of prominent visiting professors in specialized fields and a number of special instructors, lecturers and demonstrators from Pacific and Asian cultures.

EDUCATION 590M TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE WORKSHOP (3)

8:30-12:20 Daily Room 127 June 18 - July 2 Pack

This course is designed to acquaint the classroom teacher with the basic principles and practices of ESL. Teachers from Hawaii will find many points especially useful in handling students with multilingual and/or pidgin backgrounds. Creation of practical teaching lessons and materials is emphasized. No prerequisite.

EDUCATION 590E LITERATURE IN POLYNESIA (3)

9:30-11:20 Daily Room 162 June 18 - July 15 Jenson

A study of the literature of Polynesian lands and the literature written by American and European authors in Polynesia.

EDUCATION 579 PEOPLES OF THE PACIFIC ISLANDS WORKSHOP (4)

8:30-11:20 Daily TBA June 18 - July 15 Swapp

This course is an introduction to and a study of the Hawaiian, Samoan, Tongan, Tahitian, Fijian and Maori people. Along with other approaches, it provides an opportunity to participate in activities peculiar to the Polynesian people. Includes presentations by native members of island cultures studied.

Class attendance at the Polynesian Cultural Center evening show and unlimited access to the grounds will be included in the course.

Primary School Student learns to use the Language Master

TESOL CONVENTION REPORT

by Michael E Foley and William K Gallagher

Over a thousand teachers, administrators, researchers, curriculum specialists and publishers gathered in Los Angeles from March 4-9, 1975, for the ninth annual convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). The convention program provided something for everyone concerned with language instruction. Those in attendance participated in workshops, listened to formal presentations of papers, reviewed the latest in ESL publications and met with colleagues from the U.S., Mexico and several foreign countries.

TESOL can no longer be considered a U.S. professional group. A quick look at the list of affiliate organizations shows members located in Canada, the Dominican Republic, Ireland, Mexico and Venezuela. In addition to these organized members, many individual members from the Middle East, Southeast Asia, Micronesia, Europe and Latin America joined the convention activities. This year's convention program featured several new and welcome innovations to provide rewarding and educational experiences for our truly international membership.

One of these innovations was the special interest group meeting. Experts shared their experiences in informal panel discussions, rap sessions and problem-solving groups with people interested in EFL in foreign countries, EFL for foreign students in the U.S., ESL for U.S. residents in general, ESL in bilingual education, ESL in adult education, Standard English as a Second Dialect (SESD), and applied linguistics.

Several informal luncheons were planned in an effort to increase interaction among convention participants. Various dining areas of the hotel were designated for those interested in English teaching in connection with early childhood, elementary, secondary, higher and adult education, support services such as guidance counselors and social workers, researchers, administrators, and supervisors, teacher trainers, students and parent-community groups.

Another addition to this year's agenda was a meeting of the national advisory council. Comprised of delegates selected from the organizational affiliates, the council nominated people for next year's election to the executive committee and made recommendations to the present executive committee.

Also new this year were half-hour teaching demonstrations presented by successful instructors. Growing out of the general membership's demand to share the latest pragmatic innovations and proven teaching techniques, each TESOL affiliate was asked to choose one of their members to demonstrate classroom programs, materials and/or approaches which had helped students learn English. Judging from the large numbers in attendance at these practical sessions, this innovation will become a permanent feature of future programs.

Two other minor innovations helped make this convention much more enjoyable for many: Each convention gathering was divided into smoking and non-smoking sections for the comfort of the participants. And, freeing those who wanted to listen without having to take copious notes, the Minute Tape Company (3640 So. Sepulveda Blvd., Suite No. 123; Los Angeles, CA 90034) recorded on cassettes all of the general and small-group sessions.

We would like to share our impressions derived from several presentations we attended and some of our evaluative observations made during the course of the

program. We realize that other participants attending different, or even the same sessions, may have reached other conclusions and developed varied interpretations.

For years, many structural linguists claimed that a sound ESL program rested upon a detailed contrastive analysis of the first and second languages under consideration. Transformational grammarians, who hold to the existence of a universal human grammar, deny the validity of such a claim. For the transformationalists, the first and second language differences are merely superficial, and not essential for ESL teaching (Newmark, 1971). At the convention, however, delegates referred to studies of errors by second language learners to determine if these errors, might be due to interference from the first language. (see Bailey, Madden and Krashen, 1974).

Mr. Foley, an executive of the Hawaii Council of Teachers of English, represented Hawaii on the National Advisory Council; Mr. Gallagher presented a paper.

Structuralists hold that such interference is one of the major reasons which impede progress in Second Language acquisition. These errors can be predicted, the structuralists posit, through contrastive studies, and then drills can be devised to eliminate the mistakes.

However, research reported at the convention showed that these errors made by Second Language learners are not so much a result of interference from the first language, as they are developmental in nature. That is, the errors made are the same errors all language learners--both first and second, from different linguistic backgrounds--make as they progress towards complete language acquisition (see Dulay and Burt, 1973, 1974).

Some researchers label this stage of Second Language acquisition "interlanguage." For example, a student may generalize the past rule (or in this case, overgeneralize) and say 'goed' for 'went.' This error should not be misinterpreted as interference, but rather reflects the learner's interim grammar, (i.e. interlanguage) or the learner's current psychological hypothesis about the target language.

Furthermore, studies in error analysis are showing that a learning hierarchy exists for the acquisition of certain features in English. Various measuring devices are included in the studies showing that the age and linguistic background of the learners seem to have little influence on changing the order of acquisition.

Studies in error analysis show the order of function word and inflection acquisition within the noun phrase in English to be: 1) plural, 2) article, and 3) possession. Within the verb phrase, the order is: 1) progressive, 2) copula, 3) auxilliary, 4) irregular past, and 5) third person -s. (see Krashen, in press)

This implies an order of acquisition which may run counter to many popular Second Language programs where materials are structured "to prevent errors."

Tests (Upshor 1966 and Mason 1971,) reported at the convention by Fathman, show that adults do require extensive meaningful exposure and formal instruction in the target language or dialect, while increasing evidence shows that students from 6-15 years of age do not require any formal, i.e. classroom, instruction--exposure is sufficient for them to learn a new language (see Fathman, 1974). Adults beyond age 15, usually demand grammatical explanations, perhaps gaining the security of knowing there are principled reasons for the linguistic phenomena they are being exposed to.

Included in another presentation were various theories to account for the presence of a foreign "accent." 1) accent is a result of a psychological habit on the part of the articulators, so that nerves and muscles (and perhaps neurological functions) of articulation progressively become rigid with age. Then, by the time a Second Language learner reaches a certain age or level of physical development, he is physiologically incapable of acquiring a Second Language native accent. 2) Some psychologists claim

accent may be a result of psychological habit formation, and 3) necessary underlying empathy with the second language community is lacking. Tarone reported that his studies show that increased empathy in language learners results in better pronounciation. Since Second Language learners normally retain an accent even after years of study and foreign residency, there is also another possibility that accent may be connected to psychological notions of selfhood.

In one session a panel from Educational Testing Service of Princeton, N.J., described their efforts to construct a new TOEFL examination. The present test has been in use for the past 15 years. ETS is anxious to work with educators in institutions in making changes and additions to the new TOEFL, which they hope to begin administering next year. They recommended in using the old test that each school or program should establish their own cut-offs and interpretations for TOEFL results.

TESOL now publishes a collection of the convention papers (the '74 collection is now available) so those who are interested in reviewing all of the ideas may purchase a copy of the collection or order the previously mentioned tape recordings.

In general the convention proved worthwhile: Many speakers were outstanding. The publishers' displays were extensive. And the opportunity to meet colleagues and discuss ideas was refreshingly stimulating.

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Next year the TESOL CONVENTION will be held in New York City.

BOOK REVIEWS

Mary Finocchiaro and Michael Bonomo *The Foreign Language Learner: A Guide for Teachers*
Regents Publishing Co. 1973 **Price: $3.95**

An excellent reference text for teachers in ESL who are looking for help in both curriculum and classroom planning.

It includes chapters on language, the theories of language learning, and developing a curriculum in addition to the expected teaching of the features of language, developing communication skills, making effective use of materials and techniques of instruction, and testing and evaluation.

There is also a short chapter on cultural insight in language teaching with suggestions for implimenting cultural material in a language learning program.

Each chapter has a bibliography for additional reading on subjects covered in the chapter in addition to an extensive general bibliography as an appendix.

An invaluable aid to new teachers in ESL is a ten page appendix of definitions of useful terms in the second language field.

Louise Hirasawa and Linda Markstein. *Developing Reading Skills*.. advanced
Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1974 **Price: $4.95**

This excellent text, designed to develop reading skills and expand general vocabulary as a preparatory step toward reading and understanding college texts, is composed of twelve readings with comprehension texts.

Each text has student exercises on different aspects of English usage: determiners, prepositions, multiple word verbs, synonyms, after each four chapters. Answers for all exams are included at the back of the book.

Julia M. Dobson
Effective Techniques for English Conversation Groups Price: $3.50
Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1974

An excellent reference book for ESL conversation teachers, with numerous suggestions for conducting beginning to advanced groups. Information is given on how to use improvisations, dramas, debates, visual and audio aids, songs, etc.

Particularly helpful for a beginning or inexperienced teacher are the seventeen helpful hints for directing conversation groups. Examples:

The more advanced students do most of the talking or are bored, while the less advanced students fail to participate.

The students are not interested in the conversation activity you have scheduled.

You find yourself talking too much.

Alice C. Pack

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Editor.....Alice C. Pack
Staff ..... Api Hemi, Michael Foley
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Curtis Fawson, Director of the BYU-HC Learning Resource Center, works with local teachers in Suva, Fiji planning a media center for the L.D.S. primary school.

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WHAT GRADE IS DR. CHAN IN?

by Donna Ilyin

First presented at Northern University of Illinois, "What Grade is Dr. Chan In?" was written to present to adult educators and consultants in Local and State Departments of Education and Federal Regions.

Too often attempts are made to place highly educated non-English speakers into children's school grades. This system is humiliating and degrading. It seems rather foolish to say that Dr. Chan is in the first grade because he can't read or speak English, yet reading grade levels are important to the Federal and State Government when evaluating Adult Basic Education programs. They are important to employers when selecting minority workers for employment and they are important to Dr. Chan and to his teachers when selecting reading materials after he has reached the intermediate and advanced courses in adult schools.

When Dr. Chan can read well enough in English, he can take adult tests which place him into those reading grade levels. When he has the proficiency of an adult intermediate level student, he can also take tests designed for foreign college students who are entering beginning courses (often called ELI or ALI)[1] giving him intensive English

[1]Dr. Robert Kaplan (USC) has informed me that some ALI or ELI programs have students with nil proficiency in English. If those beginning courses are in his area and scheduled when he can attend and if they are not too expensive, he is indeed fortunate. Usually, however, Dr. Chan has to attend a free adult program ESL class.

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for college work. However he cannot take any of these tests if he has no English proficiency at all. In adult program ESL classes the beginning level classes as well as the lower intermediate level class are often called *SURVIVAL ENGLISH.* When Dr. Chan has acquired survival English proficiency, he can now take native-speaker tests that will give him a grade level equivalency. He can now take college foreign-born tests qualifying him for beginning English classes.

How long does it take for Dr. Chan to show the Local, State, and Federal Government that he can get a grade equivalency and then show gains in grade levels as he continues to study? How long will it take Dr. Chan to qualify as a beginner in a college intensive English class for foreign students? It really depends on many factors. (Language Proficiency Study p. 25 and 26) Adult beginning students on the average, take anywhere from 500 to 1500 hours of instruction to reach this proficiency.

Donna Ilyin, presently a counselor and teacher at Alemany Community College Center, has taught ESL to adults for the last 15 years. She has also written tests and been a guest lecturer and consultant in teacher training and testing. She has an MA in TEFL from San Francisco State University. Previously she was a vocational and resettlement counselor for the National Lutheran Council.

How should the Federal programs evaluate Dr. Chan's progress when he is in those Survival English classes? How do teachers select materials and reading for Dr. Chan when he is in those levels? Are most courses the same throughout the country? Is survival English just hit and miss with no plan, course outlines, curriculum or special materials, methods, tests, etc? Is it impossible for Dr. Chan's progress to be reported?

Many adult school programs throughout the country have similar plans, curriculum outlines, behavioral objectives, recommended texts and materials for those beginning Survival English classes. (For two plans and outlines see: ESL Structure Outline, Los Angeles and Master Plan II, S.F.)

Many of us believe it would be helpful for the Federal, State, and Local programs to refer to Dr. Chan's classes as SE-1 (Survival English-1) or 100, SE-2, or 200, SE-3 or 300. It really is much kinder and more realistic to say that Dr. Chan is in level 100 or SE-1 or SE-100 than to ask for a grade equivalent that doesn't exist because Dr. Chan can't read well enough to take a test in English to demonstrate his English reading grade.

It is especially more honest and rewarding for Dr. Chan and for us to report that after 350-500 [2] hours of instruction Dr. Chan has progressed to a proficiency level equal to ESL 200, SE-2, or SE-200...whatever you want to call it. Dr. Chan still can't read well enough to take the test in English to show his grade or to become a college foreign student beginner, but he usually can read well enough to take an ESL test to show his ESL level or SE level.

Dr. Chan's oral proficiency should also be evaluated since oral communication is important for surviving and finding a job in the United States. Dr. Chan may have to work part-time while he is learning English. Oral comprehension also aids reading comprehension. We want Dr. Chan to understand what he can decode--not just read a lot of words he can't understand in context. Neither Dr. Chan nor any other ESL non-English speaker should be forced to take a native speaker test or a test for foreign college students until he can read and understand English well enough to attempt the test. He shouldn't take a special ESL

[2] This figure is an estimation based on testing research that I have done in adult program ESL classes. Students in junior high, senior high and true beginning classes in ALI and BLI would undoubtedly take less time. Hopefully some researcher will study the problem in open enrollment adult ESL classes using true beginners with nil English.

screening test either until after he has acquired some English proficiency.

How can one tell if Dr. Chan is ready to take an adult program ESL screening test? Before giving him the screening tests ask a number of information questions(who, what, when, where, etc.) sprinkled with a few Yes/No questions (are, do, did, etc) about the student, his English ability, the number of classes, or kinds of classes he wants, etc. If the student can ask and answer and read a few simple conversation sentences, give him screening tests for placement. If he can't, place him in the adult beginning survival English class.

After Dr. Chan has been in a beginning Survival English class, how can one tell how much he has achieved? The screening tests can also be used as achievement or post tests if given after 350 hours of instruction. They are useful when time is limited, when teachers have not yet made reliable and valid evaluation tools to measure their objectives and when teachers want another evaluation to check their own evaluation.

What is really lacking at the present time are reliable and valid screening and achievement tests that measure reading ability in the Survival English classes 100-300. However until new reading tests are developed and normed on adult ESL students in those Survival English classes, the tests listed below can show gain. Teachers'own records of before and after achievements can also be used.

The following is a list of tests with scores showing placement into ESL levels. Grade equivalents are given when appropriate and when gain can be shown. Most of the information given here comes from research in validating my own tests, but other tests are listed. For further information about how those tests place into ESL levels, contact the authors. (See Ramirez pp. 37-41 & pp. 50-58.) Hopefully Federal, State, and Local Governments will begin to use the SE levels rather than grades. Then our Dr. Chan's progress will be realistically reported--our progress better evaluated.

SCREENING TESTS

LEVEL	SCORE	PLACEMENT
ESL 100 of Beginning 1		**SE-1 or SE-100**
EPT A and B (Hyin)	0-19	
ILYIN ORAL INTERVIEW	0-24	
STEL (Best)	0-19	
(Grinsell, Nixon, Lado, Terrell, Madsen, Martz, others)		
ESL 200 or Beginning 2		**SE-2 or SE-200**
EPT A and B	20-29	
ILYIN ORAL INTERVIEW	25-39	
STEL TESTS		
Beginning 1 & 2	20-27	
(Lado, Terrell, Madsen, others)		

(continued on page 9)

DIALOGUES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS

by Emilio G Cortez

One of the oldest and most widely used language-teaching aids is the dialogue. Many language teachers consider the dialogue a highly effective teaching vehicle. Nelson Brooks contends:

> All that is learned is meaningful, and what is learned in one part of the dialogue often makes meaning clear in another.[1]

Faye Bumpass speaks favorably of the dialogue and its use on the elementary level.

> Learning language patterns in a dialogue form is a very rewarding experience for children on the elementary levels of foreign language learning. It involves a natural and exclusive use of aural-oral skills, and all the elements of the sound system appear repeatedly.[2]

Preparing meaningful and appropriate dialogues is a difficult task and of growing concern to textbook writers and language teachers alike.

Julia Dobson and William R. Slager enumerate several considerations which can serve as a guide for writing and/or evaluating pedagogic dialogues.

1. Dialogues should not be excessively lengthy. Ideally, a dialogue consists of two or three exchanges.
2. The dialogue should have an appropriate final line that signals a realistic stopping point in the conversation.
3. The language should be natural and accurately reflect the speech habits of native English speakers.
4. The dialogue should be appropriate for a particular proficiency level (elementary, intermediate, or advanced). Excessively difficult sounds or structures should be avoided.
5. Ideally, a dialogue has enough content, in terms of either grammar or subject matter, to permit it to tie in closely with the other material in the lesson.
6. The content of the dialogue should reflect the level of sophistication of the student and his knowledge of the world.
7. The tone of the dialogue should be realistic; e.g. adults should speak as adults and children should speak as children.
8. If characters are used, they should be readily identifiable, and their characteristics should be easy to remember. An example of such a character might be a "contrary" child, Pablo, who doesn't do this or doesn't do that; he would be the character for any negative construction.

In keeping with these suggestions, nine dialogues are here presented. Various English words may be substituted into these dialogues without hampering either unity or coherence.

DIALOGUES	Vocabulary Words
A. Be sure you finish eating your *dinner*.	Beans
B. I can't ; I'm full.	Soup
A. I guess you're too full for dessert.	Spinach
B. I just got hungry again.	Peas
	Carrots
A. Where are you going?	Eggs
B. To the store; I have to	Butter

buy some *bread.*
A. Can I come?
B. Sure, let's go.

Milk
Sugar

A. That's a nice *dog*! Whose is it?
B. It's Pablo's.
A. Where'd he get it?
B. I don't know. Let's ask him.

Basketball
Football
Cat
Wagon
Bicycle

A. Did you see Papo?
B. No, I didn't. Why?
A. He has my *lunch.*
B. Oh! Here he comes now.

Book
Nickel
Pen
Dime
Quarter

A. What happened, Paul? You're hurt.
B. I fell and hurt my *arm.*
B. I'm going home.
A. I'll go with you.

Knee
Leg
Back
Neck
Nose
Ankle
Head

A. Hi! How are you?
B. Fine, thanks--and you?
A. Just fine. Where are you going?
B. To the *library.*
A. OK. I'll see you later.
B. So long.

Circus
Movies
Store
Park
Drugstore

A. Excuse me. I found this *pencil* on the floor. Is it yours?
B. Yes, it is. Thank you.

Ruler
Paper
Eraser
Notebook

A. Who's that?
B. That's my *friend.*
A. He looks like you.
B. That's what everybody says.

Cousin
Brother
Father
Uncle

A. Wasn't the circus great!
B. It sure was.
A. What did you like best?
B. I liked the *clowns* best.

Tigers
Elephants
Seals
Monkeys
Bears
Horses
Lions

Creating appropriate dialogues is an interesting and challenging endeavor--well worth the time and effort. An appropriate dialogue, when meaningfully implemented, constitutes an effective and highly versatile pedagogic aid.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Nelson Brooks, *Language and Language Learning* (New York, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1960), p. 145.

[2]Faye Bumpass, *Teaching Young Students English as a Foreign Language* (New York City: American Book Company, 1963), p. 68.

[3]Adapted from two sources: Julia Dobson, "Dialogues: Why, When, and How to Teach Them," *English Teaching Forum,* X (May-June, 1972), No. 3, pp. 22-23 and William R. Slager, "Creating Contexts for Language Practice," *TESOL Quarterly,* VII (March, 1973), No. 1, pp. 38-40.

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TALK AND LISTEN

by Richard Via

ESL teachers have an opportunity to make use of an effective technique that professional actors use to enhance a conversation class. Actors use the technique to develop a conversational tone and to learn their lines. In the theatre the technique has no name, but I have dubbed it, "Talk and Listen," for that is what the method calls for.

There are many values in using the "Talk and Listen" system with ESL learners. It can train students to listen; it can help them learn dialogues; it can help them develop a conversational tone (talking rather than reciting); and not last (for there are still others) nor least--"talk and listen" is fun.

To discuss this a little further let me make a few observations. A good actor, like a good conversationalist, must be a good listener. By listening an actor can judge how he/she needs to respond. The way something is said to a performer, or anyone, affects the way the other performer responds. For a language learner the same holds true. Listening provides the language learner with added opportunity to pick up a needed word or phrase to use in his /her reply.

By talking to an actor, rather than reading, the actor or conversationalist becomes more interesting--the difference between reading and talking is tremendous. Yet in most classroom situations dialogues are read aloud rather than spoken as conversation.

All too often students are asked to memorize a dialogue and recite it in class. This seems to work well in the classroom and the student receives an A. But in the real world these rote recitations cause the student to fail. The words come tumbling out, with no thought behind them, because that is the way it was memorized.

A sad but frequent consequence of this is that the speaker is not understood by the listener, and thus there is no communication, no exchange of information. This isn't a problem in a classroom where dialogues are memorized because it isn't necessary to listen, nor is it necessary to communicate. The cue for the listener to begin speaking is the silence, not the message of the first speaker. In other cases the dialogue comes to a dead end because the listener, who had never learned the dialogue replies with a sentence which is logical and appropriate, but original. This new sentence leaves the memorizer in a bewildered state unable to reply. A in the class, F outside. With "talk and listen" students are trained to talk and listen and talk.

Perhaps the best way to start students on the "talk and listen" system is to use Talk and Listen Cards. Choose or write a simple dialogue of six to eight lines. Put the lines that A speaks on one card and those of B on another.

A: Why do you always do that?

A: - - - - -

B: - - - - -

B: Do what?

A: You know. What you're doing now.

A: - - - - -

B: - - - - -

B: Why? Does it bother you?

A: Oh no, not at all.

A: - - - - -

B: - - - - -

B: Then why did you ask?

Since A speaks first, A reads his/her first line to himself/herself. B does not look at his/her card yet, but waits for A to speak to him/her. A then makes eye contact with B and says the line to B. When A has finished speaking, B then reads the first line on his/her card to himself/herself, then says it to A. The entire dialogue is done this way. Students

may refer to their cards as often as necessary, but whenever someone is speaking there must be eye contact. Students should not be reading their lines planning how to say the line, they should be listening to the speaker. A proper response can be given only by listening. When using a dialogue from a textbook or play, students should be careful not to read the line that is being spoken to them. In most cases students who read the line spoken to them hear their own "inner voice" with its interpretation louder than the real voice of the speaker.

If you should note that students are making eye contact, but not listening, put two sets of dialogues on the cards. This will require listening to elicit a sensible dialogue.

A. It was good to see you yesterday.
or
Did you know I was going to Detroit?
B. No, I didn't.
or
It was good to see you too.
A. Yeah, I'm going to Detroit.
or
It was a good party, wasn't it.
B. Oh, it was okay.
or
For how long?
A. Permanently. I'm moving there.
or
Are you going to the picnic Saturday?
B. Oh, not on a vacation?
or
I'm not sure.
A. It should be fun.
or
No. I'll miss this place.
B. We'll miss you too.
or
Well, I'll try to go.

Once the students have learned to use the cards, there are other things you may do that are both fun and effective. Speaking the lines in different natural tones or speeds will show how language can be changed in meaning or feeling. The greatest change and the most fun occurs when the circumstances surrounding the situation are given. By this I mean the who, where, what, when, anything that might control the way the sentences would be spoken. Every dialogue changes according to these circumstances yet rarely do teachers think to add them.

In the first dialogue how would the lines be spoken if:

-A and B are a married couple watching T.V. B keeps changing channels.
-A and B are parent and child. B, the child is biting his/her fingernails.
-A and B are lovers. B is stroking A's hair.

The dialogues for Talk and Listen may be written by the teacher, taken from textbook dialogues or selected from suitable plays. The class may be divided into pairs using different cards or the same cards with each pair deciding on the given circumstances. After they have worked on them they could be presented in front of the class for all to enjoy. More than likely after working on them they will know the lines and not need the cards. In case they have not learned them, let them refer to the cards rather than memorize the lines.

BOOK REVIEW

Access to English as a Second Language

Robert G. Breckenridge
McGraw-Hill International Book Company. 1974.

The two texts and accompanying workbooks that comprise Robert G. Breckenridge's *Access to English As a Second Language* are, I think, valuable only to the more experienced ESL teacher. There are enough disappointing features encountered in the books that in the end it will have been the strengths of the teacher rather than those of the materials that have made their adaptation a success in class.

Teachers examining the texts for possible use in the classroom will find them time-consuming to figure out. There is no preface or introduction explaining how to use the

books or at what level students they are directed. To read some of the instructions to the student in the first chapter, one would guess they are directed only to fluent English speakers:

> *Situational practice gives you...the opportunity to use English for actual communication rather than just in mechanical repetition and drill (p.8)*

There is some pretty advanced vocabulary in that. And yet the exercises that accompany are very basic:

> *Is this a book?*
> *Yes, it is.*
> *Is this a pen?*
> *No, it isn't.*

There are also modals (should, can) that are apparent early in either the instructions or the commentary, some future ("are going to") expressions, and some if clauses. All of this sophisticated language indicates that the audience Breckenridge must have in mind is an advanced one, but one that needs to go back and review the fundamentals of English.

It is also an audience that needs a teacher, and this may be a strength or weakness of the books, depending on how you look at it. The books lend themselves well to actual classroom work, with the teacher taking sometimes an active, sometimes a passive role, but always an instigating one. He prods the students constantly with questions, he walks around the room and holds things up and asks about them, and he gets the class to do the same things.

But the student on his own will have difficulty with the books, at least until he understands them after several chapters. There are not enough examples in many of the first exercises to give him what he needs to practice outside of class. Also, some of the examples are erroneous:

Give the correct answer, "Yes, it is" or "No, it isn't".

1. *Is Centerville a town? Yes, it is.*
2. *Is Centerville in the United States? Yes, it is.*
3. *Is Centerville in Mexico? No, it isn't.*
4. *Is there a school in Centerville?*
5. *Is there a bank in Centerville?*
6. *Do the Bankers live in Centerville?*
7. *Do you live in Centerville?*
8. *Are you going to read about Centreville?*

Obviously it's impossible to answer "Yes, it is" or "No, it isn't" to questions 4 through 8. This is cleared up later in the book mostly because one can assume the student has become accustomed to the routine. Nonetheless, the teacher will have to be careful to explain much to his class as they first attempt the exercises.

Perhaps the strongest selling points of the books are their approach and extensiveness of exercise. Listening and speaking are stressed throughout, with particular emphasis on question formulation. Questions are the basic tools for second language acquisition. but many students have problems with them, the appropriate words to use (who, what, how), their syntax. They therefore lack confidence and are embarrassed to ask about things they must learn. Breckenridge gives second language speakers that confidence through rather lengthy catechism and practice formulating their own questions about given situations.

Writing comes later and receives the most attention in the workbooks, which correlate well, by the way, with the texts. There are reading selections in each chapter. They become progressively longer and increasingly difficult, and have more paragraphs. Most of the exercises and questions stem from the reading selection.

Access to English can be a very effective approach to English in the hands of a competent, experienced teacher. Otherwise it may be a bewildering mistake for both teacher and student alike.

Steven Goldsberry

What Grade Is Dr. Chan In?

(continued from page 3)

ESL 300 or Intermediate I		SE-3 or SE-300 Grade 2.9 RFU (Thurstone)
EPT A and B	30-39	
ILYIN ORAL INTERVIEW	40-59	
STEL TESTS		
Beginning I & 2	30-37	
Intermediate I & 2	0-19	
(Finn, Lado, Mills, Terrell)		
ESL 400 or Basic Education where ESL and native speakers of English are in the same class. Vocational 4/4 programs are often at this level also.		Grade 3.5 RFU
EPT A and B	above 35	
and G and H (Ilyin, Best & Biagi)	0-19	
ILYIN ORAL INTERVIEW	60-74	
STEL Tests (Int. I & 2)	20-29	
TOEFL	350-425	
(Mills, CELT see Harris, and others)		
ESL 500		about 5th grade level RFU (Thurstone) TABE M
(Basic Education English speaking students and non-native speaking students with low educations are now in another course--not usually in ESL classes.)		
EPT TESTS G/H	20-29	
ILYIN ORAL INTERVIEW	75-100	
STEL TESTS		
Int. I & 2	30-37	
Adv. I & 2	0-19	
TOEFL	Below 500	
CELT		
Listening	Average 46	
Structure	Average 41	
MTELP (See Upshur)	Below 54	
ESL 600		about 7th grade level RFU TABE M
(Non-English-speakers only who usually have above 5th grade education in their own country.)		
EPT TESTS G/H	30-40	
ILYIN ORAL INTERVIEW	75-100	
STEL TESTS		
Adv. I & 2	20-40	

TOEFL	Over 500
CELT	
Listening	Average 64
Structure	Average 51
MTELP	Average 54
MICHIGAN AURAL ACHIEVEMENT (See Pillsbury)	Average 59
MICHIGAN STRUCTURE (See Pillsbury)	Average 54

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INDONESIA APPOINTMENT

The U. S. Department of State has notified Michael E. Foley, a *TESL Reporter* staffer and member of the BYU-HC ESL faculty, that he has been selected to lecture in ESL during the coming academic year. Mr. Foley and his family will assume their new responsibilities this summer in Bandung, Indonesia.

Mr. Foley is not new to international programs, having received his MA in TESL while studying at Honolulu's East-West Center. "We're looking forward to this next school year," he added, "and I hope we continue to receive the *TESL Reporter* in the mail."

PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

Position:

Teaching position in Oral English and Phonetics in the College Division of Kobe College. Academic rank dependent on qualifications. A 3 year contract commencing September, 1975.

Qualifications:

B.A. minimum; training in TEFL and teaching experience desirable; must be a Christian and eligible for short-term appointment by the United Church Board for World Ministries (United Church of Christ).

Kobe College:

Founded in 1875, Kobe College is the oldest Christian institution of higher education for women in Japan. It is located on a beautiful 30 acre campus in surburban Nishinomiya, convenient to nearby Kobe, Osaka and Kyoto. The College comprises a 6 year combined Junior and Senior High School division, a 4 year College division and a 2 year division of Graduate Studies. Three schools make up the College Division: School of Literature, School of Home Economics and School of Music. The English Department, with approximately 550 students and 18 faculty members, is the largest of the departments. Both the High School and College divisions of Kobe College have a long tradition of excellence in the teaching of English.

Living:

An attractive on-campus furnished apartment is provided rent free.

Salary range:

$5300-$6600. In addition are paid round-trip travel, freight, reimbursement of Japanese income tax, employer and employee share of United States Social Security taxes and medical expenses.

Summer language study option:

The appointee is encouraged to take advantage of the option for six to eight weeks of Japanese language study in Japan in the summer of 1975. Tuition, travel, housing and a per diem will be paid.

Address application or request for further information to:

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